The Nation.

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The Week.

For the first time in twelve years Mr. Cleveland's name has cut no figure in the election returns, yet it may be doubted if he ever won a more substantial triumph than in the campaign just ended. His foresight, his courage, his methods have been splendidly vindicated. No man got himself earlier right on the conquering issues of November 3, no one sooner saw that the currency question was one of life or death to the Democratic party, one that could be settled satisfactorily only in a non-partisan spirit and as a matter of national honor. In his letter to the Chicago sound-money conference of April, 1895, he clearly predicted the mad rush into repudiation which the silver agitation was certain to lead to, and declared even then that "the line of battle is drawn between the forces of safe currency and those of silver monometallism." Before and after that date he was called upon to use every power in his office, in the face of a recreant party, a hostile Congress, and the yelping *Tribunes* and Lodges of the time, to maintain the national credit; and he has now lived to see his resolute and almost solitary stand referred to with cheers in the meetings of his political opponents, and endorsed by an overwhelming vote of the people.

In a very lavishness of good fortune, the distinction was also given President Cleveland of having made and triumphed on the other great issue of the campaign —the supremacy of the law. No one supposes that he foresaw in 1894 the way in which the red, fool fury of those days would raise its head in this Presidential year, but he met it then and stamped upon it as if he had foreseen it. His action at that time in taking anarchy by the throat won half the battle in Illinois this year, and his name was daily used by Republican orators in that State to arouse enthusiasm against the civic enemy whom he had faced and disarmed in 1894, and whom the whole nation had to confront in 1896. Such things constitute the truly great achievements and rewards of political life. Party support may come or go; conventions may cheer or hiss; popular enthusiasm may wax or wane. But to have taken a position in advance on the two great issues of a critical campaign, and then to have seen the greatest of democracies swing round to it as by the force of gravitation, while the wrath of political adversaries was turned into praise—this is the thing that makes all politicians look so petty. Nor does it require a towering genius to accomplish such results. As we see, all that is needed is honest thought and the courage of it, and an unshaken constancy. These seem very ordinary qualities, but we wish we could discover a Republican leader in whom they give promise of doing as much, either for individual fame or for the country's good, as they have wrought in the case of Mr. Cleveland.

Mr. Hanna announces that he will accept no office from the McKinley Administration, and up to the time of going to press he is the only eminent Republican who has taken this remarkable position. In many parts of the country there are discernible signs of cabinet and other booms in a state of rapid development, and able editors are already making up lists of those who are "mentioned" for most of the best places, including the leading foreign missions. It is thought that there will be no lack of material with which to fill all places, in spite of the discouraging example set by Mr. Hanna. Candidates for Secretary of State are already numerous, and Bill Chandler has made a bid for the Treasury portfolio by announcing his exclusive discovery that the election is merely preliminary to a verdict of the people in favor of bimetallism. He admits that there was nothing of the kind in the election, since bimetallism did not have any hearing in the canvass. No educational campaign, no matter what its severity, could be expected to affect Chandler's intelligence.

In conversation with a reporter, Mr. Hanna is made to say that "the farmers and laborers in the Western cities" were won over "by explaining to them that we stood on the St. Louis platform, which advocates bimetallism under an international agreement, and that we were not gold monometallists." Now the St. Louis platform was drawn before the Bryan platform, and it is a safe assumption that if it had been drawn after the Bryan platform, this passage would either have been omitted or materially altered. Nothing has done more to bring us to our present pass than the persistent maintenance of the belief that there is going to be an international conference at which European nations will agree with us to establish and maintain a double standard. There is not the slightest reason to expect any such thing. Fancy such an agreement with Spain, Italy, Turkey, Greece, Russia, and Austria! Even if it were entered into, it would be useless unless it included every country in the world with which these nations had commercial relations or communication. But there is not the smallest likelihood that any country would enter into it which was not in financial difficulties. Moreover, if such an agreement were entered into, there is no probability that it would be observed when there would be large profit in breaking it. The last and final objection is, that telling people any commodity can be kept above its market value by treaty is *Bryanism pure and simple*, and naturally leads farmers and laborers to ask why it cannot be kept above par also by statute. Finally, it would be the beginning of unnumbered woes for mankind if civilized governments undertook to substitute artificial treaty money for gold and silver at their bullion value. We could not be sure that any popular government would stick to such an absurdity. The people would speedily break away from it, and where should we be then? Consequently, if this "international agreement" talk be kept up, and the public is kept in expectation of seeing "England brought to her knees," we shall have no sound financial legislation this winter. We shall have only more compromises and makeshifts. The only way out of this muddle, and the only way to prevent a reappearance of Bryanism four years hence, is to stop such talk, to say we are a monometallic nation with a gold standard, and do not care who knows it, and that we use silver only for small change.

The verdict of the elections upon Hill and Gorman, undoubtedly two of the most pestiferous influences in modern politics, is serious enough to satisfy the desires of the most extreme theoretical reformer. Hill disappears in New York State beneath an adverse majority of 273,000, and Gorman is confronted in Maryland with one of over 30,000. In both States the Democratic party has not been defeated merely, but utterly routed. This outcome is the result of the management of the two most entirely "practical" politicians in the party. They were the shrewdest of their kind, and yet the fruit of their years of shrewd management is complete disaster. Hill saw it coming, and sought to escape some of its consequences by hiding himself, but Gorman faced it till the last and has gone down alone before it. He was the most conspicuous Democratic leader who had the bad courage to ally himself with Bryan, and he must fall with him. It is a pity that his term does not, like Hill's, end with the present legislative year. He has two years more of his term to serve, but it is to be hoped that the tide against him in Maryland is strong enough to last until his successor shall be chosen.

So far as the result in New York State is concerned, we shall probably see within a very short time that it is a dangerously complete personal triumph for Mr. Platt, at least in the legislative branch of the government. There is a very large Republican majority in the Legislature,

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and it is more than suspected that it is in favor of sending Mr. Platt to the United States Senate in place of Mr. Hill. Tammany has succeeded in electing twenty-three out of the thirty-five Assemblymen from this city, which furnishes additional warning as to the strength which that organization still retains. Nearly all the Republicans elected here and elsewhere are Platt men, and the city will be obliged again this winter to fight for its rights at Albany. With Platt as Senator, and with a Governor and Legislature who will do Platt's bidding, shall we be much better off than under Hill and his machine? This is a question which time alone can decide, for we must give Mr. Black a chance to show that he is capable of being a better Governor than his signing of Jake Worth's application for County Clerk of Brooklyn indicated him to be. It seems incredible that a man who is elected to office by such an overwhelming popular vote as he has received, can be content to act in the office as the mere dummy of a boss.

A study of the Connecticut election figures shows that the Democrats in the agricultural communities in that State were less inclined to do something for silver, or were less subservient to party organization and "regularity," than were the Democrats in the cities and the manufacturing towns. In New Haven County, which contains the largest city in the State, three smaller cities, and several large towns, in each of which the factory employees predominate, the vote for Cleveland in 1892 was 55 per cent. of the total vote, leaving out of the reckoning the Populist and Prohibition vote, which was comparatively insignificant. Last week Bryan polled 39 per cent. of the vote in that county. In comparison, Litchfield County, made up, with few exceptions, of agricultural towns, gave 49 per cent. of its vote to Cleveland and only 27 per cent. to Bryan. The same praiseworthy distinction for the Democratic farmer is found in a comparison of the vote in the agricultural towns in New Haven County with the vote in the cities and the manufacturing towns in that county. In the latter, where Cleveland received 56 per cent. of the total vote in 1892, Bryan received 41 per cent. But in the country towns the Democratic portion of the vote dropped in the four years from 47 to 20 per cent.

"Rock-ribbed" New Jersey furnishes as astonishing a case of political revolution as can be shown in any part of the country. It has been proverbially a State which would go Democratic in Presidential years under any or all conditions. Last year the Republicans elected a Governor by a majority of 26,000, which was itself unheard of and a political portent. But last week McKinley received a plurality of no less than 87,000. The same State was carried by Cleveland in 1892 by 15,000 votes. Such a complete overturn, involving a transfer of 50,000 votes from one party to another, in a State where the total vote does not rise above 350,000, can scarcely be paralleled in the returns from any other State. In other words, the man who wrote the Chicago platform simply wrote off almost one-third of the Democratic vote in New Jersey. This result was no doubt due to the fact that New Jersey is what might be called a city State. The population of its own large cities, and of those many thriving towns which get most of their inhabitants and their tone from New York city, controls the vote of the State. Hence its quick and emphatic response to the Bryanite attack on intelligence and honesty.

Indiana was the closest of all the States in the central West, and the victors in the recent struggle there are entitled to a national hearing. Particular attention should be given them when they come with so admirable a suggestion as was made by the Indianapolis *News*, the chief independent journal of the State, on Saturday last. The *News* insists that "the duty of the hour is to be alive to one thing, and that is, that this campaign has settled nothing except the opportunity to begin a settlement." That such a settlement may be made, "there must be organization as compact as bound together the forces that fought the campaign which has secured the opportunity therefor." What is needed, in the opinion of the *News*, is a movement which shall unite all the boards of trade in the country toward the formulation of a method of procedure. In such a movement it thinks that Indianapolis might well take the lead, since with Indianapolis and Indiana men originated the sound-money protest within the Democratic party, and Indianapolis gave its name to the convention, the platform, and the ticket which more distinctly embodied the great issue of the campaign than any other. The *News*, therefore, advises that the Indianapolis Board of Trade take the initiative in organizing for currency revision; that a special meeting for this purpose be called at a very early day; that the board send out a circular letter to the boards of trade of the country, emphasizing the importance of concerted action, and suggesting that on a certain day meetings shall be held by these boards, at which representatives shall be appointed to confer with the national organization and to prepare a plan for reform; and that the body so created be empowered to invite to its deliberations men who are eminent for knowledge of economic subjects. The *News* believes that "if a wise plan were formulated, as we may almost be sure would be the case, public opinion would compel Congress to legislate on the committee's lines." We trust that the business men of Indianapolis will follow this advice. They may rest assured of coöperation everywhere.

Altgeld has been looking around for reasons to account for his and Bryan's defeat. Here is one of them:

> "We had no sinews of war; we had all the power of corrupt wealth against us; we had to reform under the fire of the enemy, and the time was too short to make a proper campaign."

"No sinews of war." That is what we told you in the beginning. We said that you were arraying all the wealth and intelligence of the country against you, and that when you came to raise money for legitimate expenses, you would not get it at the usual places, but that the very men who usually contributed to your campaign fund would give money to defeat you. We said, too, that in any election where all, or nearly all, the well-to-do classes were on one side, that side would surely prevail, and that experience had sufficiently attested this fact. The election of General Harrison in 1840 was a case in point. The Democratic party was the majority party at that time, and of the two candidates Mr. Van Buren was certainly the wiser statesman, but the panic of 1837 had convinced the business community that the hard times were due to the financial measures of the Administration. This was a mistake, but they believed it pretty generally. So they joined forces for Harrison, not with such unanimity, however, as they joined for McKinley this year. The Bryan theory this year was that mud itself has an irresistible attraction for the American voter, and that if you dive deep enough in it you can afford to dispense with the votes and services of those who believe in soap and water. Nobody was more firmly convinced of this than Altgeld. Consequently his wail that the Bryanites had no money is truly comic.

Kansas now cuts the worst figure of any State in the Union. It has tried Populism once. Years ago it chose a Peffer to the Senate, a "Sockless Jerry" Simpson to the House, and a Lewelling to the Governorship, and gave the Populists control of one branch of the Legislature. As a consequence, it saw its population decrease, the outside capital which had been invested within its borders largely withdrawn, and its good name disgraced. Yet, in the face of all this, it has now elected a Populist State ticket; a Legislature, Populist in both branches, which is to choose a United States Senator; and a Populist Judge of the Supreme Court, whose elevation to the bench will make a majority of that tribunal Populists. Such a performance sets at defiance all the laws by which we have heretofore judged the American people.

The break in the solid South is one of the most striking and encouraging results of the election. For the first time in twenty years, the sixteen States in which

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slavery formerly existed have not gone together for the Democratic candidate. Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and probably Kentucky have chosen Republican electors. Maryland gives McKinley quite as large a plurality as does New Hampshire. And as respects the States below this border tier, the large Republican vote cast in Tennessee, North Carolina, and in the industrial and commercial centres still further south, shows that the old sectional issue has disappeared, and that the people in that part of the country have at last begun to divide according to their views on the questions of to-day, and not according to race lines growing out of slavery.

We need not wait longer to be assured that the South will not respond to Bryan's appeal for a continuance of the silver agitation; and without support from the South such an agitation must fall perfectly flat. While some prominent journals in the South stoutly opposed Bryan's election—notably the Louisville *Courier-Journal* in Kentucky, the Montgomery *Advertiser* in Alabama, the New Orleans *Picayune* in Louisiana, and the Galveston *News* in Texas—most of the Democratic newspapers in that section gave him a perfunctory support. It was evident enough all along that there was no heart in this support, and no sooner was the election over than the editors made plain their relief that their nominal candidate had been defeated. The Savannah *News*, for example, says that "the reasons for the Republican victory are apparent to every one: the people don't want silver monometallism; they condemn Altgeld and uphold Cleveland." The Macon *Telegraph* says that it "cannot pretend to be surprised at the result," because, "when the Democratic national convention deserted the traditions of the party and defied the conservative feeling of the country, we felt that the success of its candidates would be little short of a miracle." The Jacksonville (Fla.) *Citizen* says that it is "not surprised at the result," because it has "always thought that the support of the free-coinage policy by the Democratic party would prove ruinous politically," as it "could not suppose that the nation would, after sober second thought, endorse this policy." Of the talk about "doing the thing all over again," the Mobile *Register* says that "the repetition will scarcely be seriously attempted," as "what the people most want now is a rest; and we feel sure that when they get it, it will be at such a price that they will value it too greatly to permit themselves easily to be led off into agitation a second time."

The first trial of voting-machines in a Presidential election seems to have been in the main successful. Those which were used in Rochester, N. Y., undoubtedly worked more satisfactorily than those which were used in Worcester, Mass. There were delays in both cities, caused by partial breakdowns or stoppages in the mechanism, but these were not serious in either case. Had the election in either city been close, they might have led to decided trouble by causing the count to be disputed. There are complaints that the Worcester machine did not secure secrecy in the voting, the working of the mechanism being so discernible from the outside as to disclose the nature of the vote which was recorded. No such complaint is made against the Rochester machine, and none could be, for its mechanism is completely hidden. Considering the haste with which the machines were got ready in both cities, the experiments may be regarded as surprisingly successful, but what is demanded before they can be adopted for general use is not partial or probable success, but absolute guarantee against failure of all kinds. In other words, they must be perfected thoroughly before they can be adopted, and it is evident that they have not yet been brought to this condition.

The remarkable success of Monday's sale of New York city bonds is ascribed by the Comptroller partly to advertising and partly to the election of McKinley. Mr. Fitch, quite inadvertently, of course, overlooks the fact that when the attempt to sell the bonds in July last failed, he attributed that failure mainly to the reform administration of the city. He said that "the result of the first year's experiment was that New York cannot borrow money readily, and has to pay 3½ per cent., when before it could get all it wanted for 3 per cent., and instead of currency bonds, the city now has to issue gold bonds." Mr. Fitch was talking for the benefit of Tammany Hall, for he saw an opportunity to do that gang of plunderers a service by misrepresenting the facts of the situation. Out of his own mouth he now convicts himself of disingenuousness, for if it was the failure of reform government which prevented bids for the bonds in July, the same influence ought to have prevailed on Monday, the reform government being still in operation. He would not admit that doubt about the national election was the chief influence in July, though he was as well aware of that fact then as he is now. If he had been simply a Tammany politician when he slandered the city and did his best to injure its credit in the estimation of the world, nobody would have cause to censure him; he would be doing only what was expected of him. But he was the chief financial officer of the city, with loud and vehement and constant professions of sleepless zeal in its behalf, and his utterances were scandalous and indecent because of his official position.

The November *Fortnightly* has two important and well-documented articles on the relations of Great Britain and Turkey. One of them is a damaging exposure of the suddenness of Lord Rosebery's discovery that England could not act alone. Only a little over a year ago, when he was Prime Minister, he was proposing to act alone. On May 27, 1895, the Foreign Office sent a dispatch to the English Ambassador at Constantinople, telling him to insist before June on a categorical reply to the demand for reforms, and adding: "Your Excellency should endeavor also to arrive at some agreement with your two colleagues as to the manner in which pressure should be exercised in the event of the answer not being favorable, for in that case it will be necessary to employ pressure, either joint or *separate*." Even after Rosebery left office, he believed it possible for Great Britain to act alone. What other interpretation can be placed upon his remarks in the debate on the Address, when he said that, should the European concert unfortunately fail, and should Lord Salisbury proceed "even *alone* to deal with this question vigorously and efficiently," the entire nation would support such a policy? Salisbury distinctly threatened to act alone a year ago, but now both he and Rosebery say it would be madness. To either of them the words of Disraeli to Palmerston in 1864 might well be applied: "After a course of menaces unaccomplished and promises unfulfilled, the noble lord comes to Parliament and announces to the country that we have no allies, and declares that England can never act alone."

The other article is a careful discussion of the Cyprus Convention, in which it is made clear that the real *quid pro quo* was the engagement of England to defend Turkey by force of arms from Russian aggression. It was "in return" for this engagement that the Sultan promised to introduce "necessary reforms"; and the cession of Cyprus was made, not as a pledge that the reforms should be carried out, but "in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagement." Lord Salisbury's dispatches are quoted at large to show that he obtained and regarded Cyprus as a military base against Russia, not at all as a guarantee of Turkish reform. This, of course, with the changed circumstances, only makes the whole thing more grotesque. Lord Salisbury now says that England and Russia are and are likely to remain the best of friends, and that the Sultan's promise of reform is worthless, but that nevertheless not an inch of Cyprus shall be given up. In other words, the club which was got for the express purpose of thwacking two sinful heads, is retained though neither head is to be thwacked at all.

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THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE VERDICT.

OUR electoral system serves now again, as more than once in the past, to obscure the nature of the national verdict in a Presidential election. An analysis of the division in the electoral college is therefore necessary, in order that people may comprehend the true meaning of the majority given the representative of sound money and national honor in that body.

There are now 447 electoral votes. A majority is 224. McKinley has 260 without counting Kentucky, South Dakota, or Wyoming, all of which, however, appear to have gone for him. But this figure, whatever the final total may be, by no means represents the relative proportion of the population, wealth, and intelligence of the country that has been cast on his side. The simplest and clearest way of bringing this out is to take a map of the United States and fix in one's mind the fact that all the region between the North Atlantic coast on the east, the Potomac and Ohio Rivers on the south, and the Missouri River on the west has gone solidly and overwhelmingly for the right side. This region includes the six New England States; the four old "Middle States" of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; Maryland; and the great Western States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa—eighteen in all of the forty-five in the Union. These States have 238 electoral votes, or fourteen more than a majority; and every one of these votes will be cast for McKinley. He has, of course, many others; six from West Virginia, thirteen probably from Kentucky, three from North Dakota, four probably from South Dakota, four from Oregon, and nine from California; but we now consider only the solid block of eighteen States east of the Missouri River and north of the Ohio and Potomac.

(1.) As to population. The United States in 1890 had 62,622,250 inhabitants. Of this total, 35,297,990 lived in the solid McKinley block of eighteen States. In other words, more than 56 per cent. of the inhabitants of the nation are found in this region, which voted as one man for sound money. Other McKinley States outside this block will raise the proportion nearer 66 than 56 per cent., but it is over 56 per cent. here.

(2.) As to wealth. The true valuation of real and personal property for the whole country, according to the last census, was $65,037,091,197. Of this total, $41,717,479,491 was found in the McKinley block of States. In other words, these eighteen States contained more than 64 per cent. of the wealth of the nation. States for McKinley outside this belt would carry the ratio nearer to 74 than 64 per cent., but it is more than 64 per cent. here.

(3.) As to intelligence. The number of persons ten years of age and over in the United States six years ago who could not read or write, was a little more than 13 per cent. The average in the McKinley block of States was only about 6 per cent. An exceptionally large foreign element carried the proportion in Rhode Island up to nearly 10 per cent., and the negro population raised it in Delaware and Maryland to about 15 per cent.; but nowhere else in the East did it reach 7 per cent., while in the West it ranged from 6.7 per cent. in Wisconsin down to 3.6 per cent. in Iowa. For the whites alone the showing was even better—only about 7 per cent. in either Delaware or Maryland, and nowhere higher except in Rhode Island. On the other hand, the number of whites above the age of ten years who could not read or write in 1890 was about 15 per cent. in Texas, 16 in Mississippi, 18 in Virginia and Louisiana, 20 in Florida, 22 in South Carolina, 23 in Georgia, 25 in Alabama and Arkansas, 27 in Tennessee, and 31 in North Carolina.

(4.) As to the cities. Population, wealth, and intellectual forces have for many years drifted into the cities of the country. The last census showed that there were twenty-seven cities in the United States with a population exceeding 100,000—not counting Washington, where the people do not vote. All but seven of these cities are in the McKinley block of States. Every one of these twenty cities went for sound money. So, also, it may be noted, did Louisville, Kansas City, St. Louis, and San Francisco of the seven outside this belt, leaving on the other side only Denver, Omaha, and New Orleans among all the large cities of the country. In many the majority was perfectly overwhelming—about 60,000, for example, in Chicago.

(5.) As to electoral votes. In the McKinley block the great majority are large States, where the two electoral votes allowed for the Senators of a State cut but a small figure—two out of 36 in New York, 32 in Pennsylvania, 24 in Illinois, 23 in Ohio, 15 each in Massachusetts and Indiana, 14 in Michigan, 13 in Iowa, and so on; only Delaware has as few as three, and New Hampshire and Vermont are the only ones with but four apiece. On the other hand, Nevada gives Bryan three electoral votes for only 45,761 people, Wyoming three for 60,705, Idaho three for 84,385, and Utah three for 207,905—twelve for a population of less than 400,000 souls. In the larger part of the South, moreover, the electoral votes represent but a small proportion of the male population. The bulk of the blacks are practically disfranchised under legal forms by the new constitutions of Mississippi and South Carolina; in many other States they are either not allowed to vote, or are counted out after their ballots have been cast.

To recapitulate, we have in what we have called the McKinley block of States (leaving all other electoral votes for him out of the account) more than 56 per cent. of the inhabitants of the nation, 64 per cent. of its wealth, and four-fifths of its great commercial centres. We have a population which has only about 6 per cent. of illiteracy, including all of its foreign element, as against an illiteracy ranging from 15 per cent. up to 31 among the whites of those Southern States where the whites (almost all native-born) decide how the electoral votes shall be cast. We have here, in a proportion larger than any census statistics can show, the great civilizing forces of the republic, as against the still surviving barbarism bred by slavery in the South and the reckless spirit of adventure in the mining-camps of the far West. We have here electoral votes that bear a reasonable proportion to the population and to the number of votes actually cast, as against bulldozing and ballot-box stuffing in one section, and the grossly exaggerated political power of a few thousand electors in the mining States. In a word, we have all the great dominating forces of the nation which make for intelligence and righteousness massed in a solid body, in the most impressive vindication of democracy governing according to law and justice that the country has ever seen.

CURRENCY REFORM.

THE time has come when the Republican party must take some step to put the currency of the country on a permanent and sound basis. This is not merely its duty, for as surely as the revolving years move on, the fight we have just passed through will be renewed unless a satisfactory adjustment is reached. There can be no peace until the Government is taken out of the banking business. All forms of Government demand-notes and circulating paper must be retired. To make the victory just achieved lasting, something must be done to make the currency automatic. As long as it is exposed to the nostrums of politicians and the changes of party platforms—as long as it is subject to the caprices of the kind of mobs that dominate national conventions—so long will the gold standard be threatened not merely by silver, but by something much cheaper than silver. Silver is only a half-way house. The standard of the Populists is not the silver dollar, but the greenback dollar.

In view of these facts, how paganish is the statement sent out on Thursday by Senator Sherman, to the effect that we ought to maintain in use the largest amount of silver that can be kept at a parity with gold. This is the kind of talk from Republicans in high places that has done all the mischief in the past, that came near wrecking the republic, and would have done so had not stronger men than John Sherman taken the helm at the St. Louis convention. Who is to determine that largest amount? Is Bryan to be consulted about that? They reckon ill who leave him out. Suppose that Sherman, Bryan, Sewall, Watson, Bill Chandler, and a few others

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were appointed a committee to decide how much silver can be maintained at a parity with gold. What a confused mess we should have, to be sure. Bryan believes that all the silver in the world can be so maintained by our action alone. At at events he said so in his campaign speeches. Perhaps Mr. Sherman means that he would determine by experiment how much silver can be so maintained. But no new experiments can be made without new legislation. Under existing law the amount of silver in our circulation can be neither increased nor diminished. Are we to have the whole question reopened in order to enable Mr. Sherman to straddle it a little longer?

Prof. Hadley delivered a lecture in Brooklyn on Friday evening on the financial problem now confronting the people of the United States. He appears to take a rather pessimistic view of the situation, but perhaps that view proceeds from his extremely candid and unreserved exposure of the obstacles to be overcome in restoring our currency to a sound basis. The opposing forces may be all summed up in one. In order to get the Government out of the banking business all fiat money must be retired. Under existing conditions of public income and expenditure, there is no surplus revenue to be applied to this object, and, even if there were, it would seem to involve contraction of the currency. It would not actually do so, since gold would flow in to take the place of the retired greenbacks. This movement would take place as surely as the water of the ocean finds its level, but it would not be visible, and therefore the cry of contraction would be raised by demagogues and would find eager listeners. In fact, the business community—the very classes which joined with such unanimity to crush the Bryanites—would grow uneasy, and, if they should forbid the step, it would not be taken. Therefore, in order that the movement may succeed, there must be some step equally visible to supply a new currency in place of the old. What shall that be? Here arises a fresh difficulty. If we are to have more national banknotes secured by the deposit of United States bonds, how are the bonds to be obtained? Will the public consent to the creation of an interest-bearing debt to take the place of a non-interest-bearing debt? Here is the crucial point of the whole problem. To the well-instructed mind this is as simple as the proposition that a man against whom a large number of small claims are outstanding, which are liable to be called at any time, to his great embarrassment, should fund them and make them payable at his own convenience. But this is not the way it is generally considered.

Suppose this difficulty could be got over—and it is probably less formidable now than it has been in the past, since we have been compelled to issue two or three hundred millions of bonds to meet these demand obligations without extinguishing them or any of them. Suppose the people would consent to the issue of bonds sufficient to retire the greenbacks and form a basis for an equivalent amount of national banknotes. The act of issuing does not put the bonds into the hands of the banks. It does not keep them there even if it puts them there in the first place. As Prof. Hadley shows, the public will compete with the banks for the purchase of these securities. As the country increases in wealth and population, the price will be bid up in the market. There will be a constant pull of private investors against the banks in the future as in the past. Moreover, the Government itself will by and by have a surplus revenue, and then it will itself be a bidder for bonds against both private investors and banks, and its bidding will be the most powerful because, in order to extinguish the interest, it can afford to pay a higher price than anybody else for the principal. It is true that this competition of the Government may be controlled by Congress, but will Congress consent to pay interest for ever after the necessity has passed? Ought it to do so? No.

Permanent relief is not to be found that way. There must be some form of banknote issues different from the present. But here we are confronted with perhaps the greatest political difficulty of all. The national-banking system is so good in most ways—it has so commended itself to the judgment of thinkers as well as of the public in general—that its note-issuing limitations and shortcomings have not attracted much attention. Yet it is demonstrable that, while the other features of the system may last for ever, the note-issuing function is and must continue to be crippled and will surely come to an end whenever the public debt is paid off. Therefore some other system must be devised. The so-called Baltimore plan, which is an adaptation of the New York Safety Fund system, now in force substantially in Canada, is a possible remedy, but we shall not here go into the details of it. We shall close this article with the remark that we have not an unlimited range of choice or an unlimited time within which to make it. The political majority which elected Mr. McKinley is in a state of unstable equilibrium. A very little disturbance of its component parts may put the majority on the other side, and the majority will almost certainly go to the other side unless something is done within the next four years to settle the currency question permanently. Our situation is in many respects what it was in the early seventies. There was just as much financial madness rampant then as now. There was just as fierce opposition to the resumption of specie payments then as there is now to the gold standard. Yet the Republican party, in fear and trembling, adopted a plan for specie payments and carried it through and saved itself by that means.

We may add a word to what Prof. Hadley says about silver certificates. If the fiat money proper—the legal-tender notes—were retired and cancelled, the vacuum created thereby would be such that the silver certificates would be simply the "large change" of commerce, something like the five-franc pieces of France. We are indebted to Prof. Taussig for that term. They would perhaps not give any more trouble than our small change does. At all events, if everything else in our monetary problem were settled, we should have a sufficient breathing-spell so that we could deal with the silver certificates at our leisure.

REDEMPTION OF OUR CITIES.

For the first time in the history of the country all the larger cities in the land, outside the South, cast a majority of their votes, on November 3, on the same side in a national election. Moreover, the cities having the largest population and the largest percentages of foreign-born citizens cast the heaviest majorities in support of sound money and social order. We append the majorities given in sixteen of the principal cities:

City.	Majority.	City.	Majority.
New York	20,000	Baltimore	20,000
Brooklyn	32,000	Cincinnati	19,000
Buffalo	12,000	Cleveland	3,500
Chicago	60,000	Detroit	7,000
Boston	21,000	Indianapolis	14,000
Providence	7,000	St Paul	4,000
Philadelphia	115,000	Milwaukee	9,000
St. Louis	17,000	Minneapolis	6,000

These figures are of great significance. They show in regard to the great cities what we have pointed out in regard to the returns in the chief States of the Union, that the "ignorant foreign vote" is not the main source of our political ills. It has been the habit of most commentators, native and foreign, to ascribe the uniform and scandalous misgovernment of American cities mainly to the presence of this vote in most of them. We have repeatedly dissented from this view, but have been almost alone in doing so. Our contention has been that the chief cause was the division of the native-born, intelligent, and so-called respectable vote into two about equally divided factions, through the introduction of national party issues and names. It has been this division into opposing forces which has made it possible for the most disreputable elements of our great cities to get possession of their governments. While the property-owners and other reputable persons were voting against one another on the tariff, the bloody shirt, and other irrelevant issues, the liquor-dealers and political gamblers were uniting and were organizing the ignorance, cupidity, and criminality of the community into a solid body, by means of which they secured a minority of sufficient numbers to get possession of the offices. There has never been a time when the divided respectable voters could not, by combining, forgetting that they were Democrats and Republi-

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cans, and confessing that the tariff and the treatment of Southern negroes had nothing to do with the business of municipal government, have carried every city in the land by a good majority, and secured a government which was representative of the best intelligence and the property of the community.

What the figures in our table do is to prove the truth of this contention beyond dispute. The misgovernment of American cities is due solely to the partisan folly of native-born Americans. These have only to unite in municipal elections, as they united on November 3, to have a permanent majority in every city of the land. The issue which brought them together is presented to them in every city election. They agreed last week that they would sink all minor considerations and unite for the common preservation of their property and the common credit and welfare of their government. That is what they ought to do in every municipal contest. Their own property is at stake; it is their money which must foot the bills of dishonest and extravagant government; it is the American name which is smirched by the notorious misgovernment of American cities. They were able to overlook the tariff issue when the country was threatened by precisely the same type of politicians as those who have so long pilfered our cities. Why not agree to overlook it again next November, or March, or whenever the time comes again to say who shall conduct a great city's affairs?

There is not one of the cities in our list which would not be immensely better off under a strictly non-partisan administration than it ever has been or ever will be under an administration which is either Republican or Democratic. No matter how good a partisan administration may be, it can never be permanent, for change is inevitable within a very short period, and with change comes the "clean sweep" and a new set of municipal employees. But with non-partisan administration there comes in the business theory of municipal labor, the idea that the city employee is the servant of the city and must give it the best service possible. He cannot do this when part of his time must be devoted to politics, and he will not do it so long as he knows that his retention depends, not upon the way in which he does his work, but upon the favor of the man to whose "pull" he owes his position. Col. Waring's men clean the streets and keep them clean because they are a permanent body of freemen who know that, so long as they do their work well, they are sure of their positions. That is the real non-partisan principle, or the application of business methods to municipal administration. Every city in the land can have these methods applied to all branches of its service, and maintained there in perpetuity, if its intelligent citizens will drop party names and issues and combine to control their own affairs. If they do not do this, they must not try to escape the responsibility for their failure by charging the resulting evils and scandals upon the "ignorant foreign-born voter." That excuse will not suffice any longer. The foreign-born voter has shown that he is neither ignorant nor vicious, and it now behooves the native-born voter to show that he is as patriotic as he professes to be.

THE VENEZUELAN SETTLEMENT.

THE only thing to be regretted about the Venezuelan settlement, which Lord Salisbury announced on Monday at the Lord Mayor's banquet, is the manner in which the controversy was begun by Mr. Olney and President Cleveland. We can testify from careful perusal of the correspondence from 1846 down, that never until Mr. Olney's taking office had we made the question our own. All our Secretaries had been careful to appear in the character simply of friends of both parties, and to repudiate the Venezuelan contention that it was our affair. There was nothing to hinder Mr. Olney's taking a new position and informing Lord Salisbury politely that we considered the business to be ours and should like to have it settled. Had this been done, instead of flinging an unmannerly and incoherent lawyer's brief at his head, accompanied with a threat of war from the President, the controversy might have been pushed with equal vigor and have had an equally happy ending. There would have been no panic, and no rousing into activity of the hateful Jingo spirit, and no damaging of President Cleveland's reputation for decency and common sense.

It is true that the sensation which this first outburst created seems to have frightened both the President and Secretary into civil and courteous argumentation, and Mr. Olney has undoubtedly shown since then, that it was want of judgment and experience, and not want of capacity, which caused his earlier indiscretion. But the evil result of this indiscretion, we fear, will not be removed, and will continue to cast a shade of unfriendliness over our relations with England. The coarse, brutal, and Jingo element in the population, which was pleased with the President's dispatch, and joyfully "stood behind Cleveland" when there was prospect of a war, will love to think that the way we opened the controversy was the right American way—that to be ruffianly and overbearing in diplomatic controversies is a sign of strength and independence, and that the proper way to approach Great Britain, in particular, is always with a threat. Far from looking back on the Olney-Cleveland outburst with regret, they are inclined to make it a precedent. When England agreed to accept arbitration, one Boston paper announced the fact with the refined and kindly heading "Victoria Crawls," and one of its congeners in New York heads Lord Salisbury's announcement of a settlement with the heading "England Backs Down"—the object in both cases being the same, to make Jingo Englishmen regret the peaceful ending of the negotiations, and, if possible, to humiliate the peaceably disposed who rejoice over it. They are intent on keeping up the national reputation for bad manners, and making the United States the typical bully of modern civilization.

We do not know the particulars of the settlement, and consequently cannot say more of it than that it *is* a settlement. But we believe it may be said that the Commission has entirely failed to discover the line for which President Cleveland was to fight, for the simple reason that there never was any line. In past times people did not define frontiers through tropical wildernesses in which no one wished to settle, and least of all the Spanish Americans. These frontier lines, like mathematical lines, were imaginary. They were "somewheres along there." It is only now, when railroads have begun to lead to mines, and population to push into waste places, that the necessity of lines in such regions is felt, and the duty of civilized men is to make them by agreement, not lie about them and fight over them when they do not exist.

Lord Salisbury's position has all along been reasonable. He has been willing to arbitrate about the line, but not to surrender portions of territory in which British subjects have settled in good faith. To do so would be very like surrendering British subjects to be tried by Turks or Chinese. No one not born under it, we believe, wishes to live under a Spanish-American Government, and no highly civilized nation like England or America is willing to make him. Lord Salisbury said, therefore, that he would arbitrate on any line which did not cut inhabited settlements out of British jurisdiction. Mr. Olney has met this in an equally rational spirit. He made the following excellent proposal:

> "Provided, however, that, in fixing such line, if territory of one party be found in the occupation of the subjects or citizens of the other party, such weight and effect shall be given to such occupation as reason, justice, the rules of international law, and the equities of the particular case may appear to require."

As we understand, Lord Salisbury has accepted this. The line is to be drawn by arbitration, but if it includes the British settlements in Venezuela, the owners are to be bought out. Ownership is to be ascertained either by fifty years' adverse possession, or by the ordinary legal proof, and by occupation. This is the whole matter, and how simple it seems. Had the controversy been settled by war, the process would probably have cost the whole value of Venezuela and about 100,000 lives besides. All Jingo processes are frightfully expensive, to say nothing of their wickedness.

Now that it is all over, who can look

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back on the controversy as conducted on the stump and in popular periodicals without wonder? Now that the Commission has been unable to find a line, is it not marvellous how many of us a year ago knew exactly where the line was, and gave in figures the superficial area of Great Britain's encroachments on the Venezuelan territory? Think how well informed the *Tribune's* "Old Pensioner," and Senator Lodge, and Theodore Roosevelt, and a host of less noisy Jingoes were about the whole matter, and how well supplied the monthly magazines and the weekly papers used to be with their views, and what a hollow hypocritical pretence our profession of ignorance used to be considered. At one time there seemed to be a certain personal danger in not knowing where the Venezuelan boundary was, and in not being willing to die or reduce one's family to poverty for it. In fact, one could tell beforehand who knew all about it and who did not by mere knowledge of their character. A certain kind of man always knew the extent of Great Britain's encroachments, while another kind did not.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, October 26, 1896.

To judge from the English press, the most notable circumstance in Ireland is the dissension that still exists among Irish members of Parliament. Like every other Irish event, this is both distorted and exaggerated. A trifling affray in an Irish country village is usually described as if it were an incipient revolution, and a squabble at a poor-law board or municipal council is paraded as evidence of the unfitness of Irishmen for self-government. At the same time, serious and prolonged riots such as those which occurred this year at fishing villages in England, where fishermen from a distance landed their fish for sale on Sunday, or gross corruption in municipal bodies, or scandalous personal altercations among members of local councils—matters of frequent occurrence in England—are barely mentioned and evoke but little comment except in the local press.

Among important events that affect Ireland, the first place must be given to the passage of a new Land Act. No Liberal Government could have passed such an act through the House of Lords; but it must be looked on more as an accidental than a designed piece of legislation, for, if it had not been for the collapse of other important Government bills, no time could have been found for this, which apparently was produced for show and for the embarrassment of Irish parties. What construction the Irish courts will put upon this measure remains to be seen. It is evidently meant to remedy certain glaring injustices and defects which arose out of the interpretation by the courts of the Land Act of 1881. That act purported to exempt from rent all improvements made by tenants, but the decisions of the judges laid down that in many cases there was no exemption, and in most only a partial exemption, from rent in respect of the expenditure by tenants on the permanent improvement of their farms. The present law requires an exhaustive enumeration of all improvements on farms where tenants apply to have fair rents fixed, and the court is to assign to landlord and tenant respectively such improvement works as they find to be the property of each party, making a deduction from the full letting value of the farm in respect of all works which are credited to the tenant.

It will be easy enough for partial or prejudiced administrators to drive coaches and fours through this act. Carelessness and ignorance may bring about the same result, and one great difficulty has been to find and secure the appointment of competent and qualified judges. In England there is a large body of skilled surveyors and valuers who are constantly engaged in the estimation of value of real property for assessment, compensation, and such like purposes. In Ireland no such body ever existed, and almost the only professional valuing that was ever done was for the purpose of raising farm rents; a valuer being employed to give a semblance of fairness to a transaction that always ended in the same way. The English Surveyors' Institute requires all its members to qualify, not only by practice and apprenticeship, but by passing a series of examinations in such matters as are necessary to the intelligent practice of their profession. Surveying in all its branches; the law as to value, compensation and assessments; political economy; farming and estate management, are subjects which all practising surveyors and valuers should be theoretically acquainted with. In Ireland there are no tests, no prescribed qualifications for surveyors or valuers under the Land Acts, and it would probably be found that most persons employed or practising as valuers could not pass an examination in the elements of mensuration or political economy. The laymen who are valuers and fair-rent fixers under the Land Law are appointed by the Lord Lieutenant, on the recommendation, it is believed, of persons who have influence at "the Castle." It is needless to say that the farming classes are not represented, and one ground of dissatisfaction on the part of the tenants is their belief that the official valuers not only belong to a hostile class, but are often profoundly ignorant of their business.

The new act is an addition to the many complex and intricate statutes dealing with the relations of landlord and tenant passed since 1860; in addition to these the law has to be found out from a mass of undigested and conflicting legal decisions extending over a period of thirty years. The bill as brought in was hastily remodelled by the Government, incompletely discussed, hurriedly passed with sundry amendments in the small hours of the night, and, as a patch on the former tangle of laws, promises an infinite amount of litigation. It is no more a settlement of the Irish land question than any other act has been.

Another matter of great importance to the future of Ireland has been the final report of the Royal Commission on the Financial Relations of Great Britain and Ireland. A practically unanimous conclusion was that while the actual tax revenue from Ireland is $\frac{1}{17}$ of the total revenue of the United Kingdom, Ireland's taxable capacity is *not more* than $\frac{1}{20}$. This general report was qualified by a number of separate and supplementary reports. The Chairman, O'Conor Don, and four other members reported that the ratio of Ireland's taxable capacity to that of Great Britain is not more than 1 to 20, and *possibly is much less*. Messrs. Sexton, E. Blake, and Slattery found that the true proportion of taxable capacity is 1 for Ireland to 36 for Great Britain; that this ratio is the highest for which any equitable basis can be found, without regard to past over-taxation or the continual increase of disparity between the resources of Great Britain and Ireland. English opinion will probably attach most weight to the separate report issued by Lords Farrer and Welby; the latter for many years principal officer of the Treasury, the former an ex-official of the Board of Trade. They also found that Ireland's actual tax revenue was $\frac{1}{17}$, while it should not have been more in 1893-4 than $\frac{1}{20}$. In one of the concluding paragraphs this report says: "After the exposure of the over-taxation of Ireland made by this inquiry, it will be difficult for the Imperial Parliament to maintain the present taxation of Ireland, at any rate without compensation." The excessive and wasteful expenditure in Ireland is not lost sight of; Lords Farrer and Welby describe it as "a pecuniary loss to the taxpayers of Great Britain and a cause of demoralization to Ireland."

After eighty years of unavailing protest from representative Irishmen, it is at last discovered and officially recorded by English Royal Commissioners that Ireland is overtaxed, and that imperial expenditure in Ireland is to a large extent useless and demoralizing. But unless agitation passing the limits of what is considered "constitutional" both in and out of Parliament, quickens the English conscience into action, another eighty years may pass without any reform of our financial relations with England. This report says: "The evil of excessive taxation cannot be properly remedied unless excessive expenditure be abated at the same time"; but the revenue raised in Ireland is spent wholly under the direction of the Imperial Parliament, and it is against the useless waste of her revenue, as well as against the excessive contribution required for British purposes, that Irishmen protest.

Lord Welby has for years been the principal officer of the Treasury, and it has been his duty to furnish English ministers with figures and arguments against the Irish view of this question. The forces of tradition and prejudice appear strongly in this report; almost all the evidence is ignored, and it appears to be based wholly on the returns furnished by the Treasury, although the fallacious character of these was clearly demonstrated, both by Mr. Giffen, the well-known statistician and economist, and by Mr. Thomas Sexton in his examination of the Treasury officials. By a process of "adjustment" and conjecture as to the amount of articles consumed in England, though the duty is paid in Ireland, Lords Farrer and Welby estimate the Irish contribution to the imperial revenue at six and three-quarter millions. The latest Parliamentary return shows that the revenue collected by imperial officers in Ireland is slightly over ten millions, and though there may be some question as to whether the revenue from Irish duty-paid articles consumed in England should be credited to Ireland or not, the deduction of three and a-quarter millions on this account cannot be justified. In addition to ten millions collected by imperial officers, three millions are collected by local authorities, so that the local and imperial tax revenue raised in Ireland amounts to nearly £3 per head of the population. Any Government with such a revenue would be dangerously rich. The total cost of Government, federal and local, in the United States, was estimated by Mr. Edward Atkinson (*Engineering Magazine*, November, 1895) at £2-16-0 per head, and your adminis-

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tration appears to be one of the most generous and extravagant among modern states. In Ireland we have a lavish expenditure on officials, police, soldiers, and generally useless public works. We have a bad and out-of-date system of primary education; no Catholic university, but abundantly endowed Protestant colleges; and in local and municipal matters, taxation without representation is the rule. Irishmen, having no control, have no interest in economical government, for Ireland gains nothing by economy of the imperial revenue; the less spent in Ireland, the greater the gain of the British Treasury.

Another addition to the literature on the subject of what ought to and might be done for Ireland is the report of the Recess Committee, a voluntary body brought together by Horace Plunkett, a Unionist member of Parliament, for the purpose of suggesting what should be done for Ireland in matters outside the sphere of party politics. This Committee has published an interesting report relating the crimes and mistakes of past governments in Ireland, pointing out the deficiencies in our educational system, describing what is being done in other European countries to develop their resources and promote social and industrial progress, and finally making a series of suggestions to the Government for the creation of new departments, agricultural and educational, through which "the State" is to act for the benefit of the Irish people. In other countries held up in this Report as examples, "the State" is the whole body of the people acting through their representatives, but in Ireland "the State" is the British Parliament, which has sole control of the Irish revenue, and in which Ireland is practically disfranchised. The State in this sense crushed Irish industries, trade, and enterprise in the past, passed laws which prevented three-fourths of the population from being educated, or accumulating wealth of any kind, and even in recent years crushed and discouraged attempts made by Irish departments to promote agricultural and technical education, which the Recess Committee hold to be the necessary foundation of any progress.

The reforms proposed by this committee would need (1) legislation in the Imperial Parliament, for which no time can ever be found; (2) ample funds, which are not likely to be got out of the British Treasury; (3) a complete change in the methods of Irish administration and in the minds of the ruling classes. For half a century it has been an accepted principle with these that there were too many people in Ireland. The inhabitants of the country were, dreadful to relate, consuming the greater part of the produce of their native soil, and this was wanted for taxes by the English Treasury and for rents by absentee landlords. The policy of compelling and promoting emigration was established, instead of seeking to educate the people and make them more productive. Government favored and helped this policy; it did not hold it to be an undisputed maxim of government that "people are the riches of a nation," and the result has been achieved of reducing the population of a fertile country by one-half in the space of forty years. Lecky says that by the penal laws "nearly all the talent, the energy, the ambition of the country was driven to the Continent"; the land system and the absence of useful education have had a similar expelling effect in later years. This week the Catholic hierarchy, in a manifesto on the education question, speak of "the impossibility of raising a nation in which three-fourths of the population are cut off from the direct and indirect advantages of the full training of their best intellects."

Until some measure of home rule gives the Irish people the control of their own revenue and internal administration, the methods of reform suggested by the Recess Committee could not operate effectively. Experience shows that an increase of departments under the British Treasury, and an addition to the already excessive army of officials, means spending money without receiving any corresponding benefit. Lord Farrer's report says: "We believe that the expenditure of public funds cannot be wisely and economically controlled unless those who have the disposal of public money are made responsible for raising it as well as spending it." But the Recess Committee propose that more money shall be got from the Treasury to be spent by unrepresentative and unsympathetic officials. This recommendation is openly put forward by Mr. Plunkett as an antidote to home rule; so, while the Nationalists are not likely to oppose the spending of money in Ireland, they have abstained as a body from any active coöperation with the Recess Committee.

Another Unionist movement is one for the more humane treatment of the poor and sick in the Irish workhouses. But the excessive centralization of our entire system of local government, the "red tape" of the administrative bodies, the continued refusal of successive Governments to place the poor-law system on a popular and representative basis and to allow the ratepayers to effectively control the present extravagant expenditure, prevent national coöperation and interest in this matter. The Poor Law was introduced into Ireland about fifty years ago, when the country swarmed with paupers and vagrants, largely the result of the wholesale "clearances" of their estates by the landlords. Immense jail-like barracks were built for the accommodation and confinement of these unfortunates. The total number of paupers in Ireland is now one in 46 of the population, while in England it is one in 36. The poor rates have been a continually increasing charge in Ireland, though the number of persons relieved has diminished, while in England the charge has become less than at almost any period of this century. The Irish Poor Law is much stricter and more harshly administered than the English; the Irish Boards of Guardians are largely composed of landowners who become ex-officio members, while the elected guardians are chosen by a system of plural voting which practically deprives the poorer ratepayers of any voice in the matter. The upkeep of the workhouses, built to accommodate treble the present number of paupers, is a serious and useless expense. The workhouse infirmaries are used as county hospitals by comparatively well-to-do-persons, for no other institutions are available in country districts in case of serious and infectious diseases.

Last year the Irish Medical Association made an attempt to investigate the condition and management of the workhouses, of which there are about 160 in all. They were able to get official information as to only 79 of these institutions, the medical officers in other cases declining to answer, generally on the ground that they did not wish to incur the hostility of their Boards. The Medical Association said, "It would be impossible to describe the misery and wretchedness of the unfortunate poor doomed to enter and perhaps end their days in some of these institutions." They reported that out of 79 cases where they got information, 43 infirmaries have no trained nursing; in 65, beds and pillows are merely bags filled with straw; in 6 only is there satisfactory ventilation; in 59, sanitary arrangements are of the most disgusting character imaginable; in 43 the inmates have neither plates, knives, nor forks; in all there is an absence of proper food, nursing, sanitation, and comfort. The first step in reforming the scandalous condition of the workhouses would be that the guardians should be freely elected by the ratepayers, who would then feel interested in economy and efficiency of administration. Few of the well-to-do persons in this district know anything of the internal economy of the neighboring workhouse, containing 700 to 800 inmates. Though a large ratepayer for twenty years, I have never been asked for a vote or had an opportunity of electing a guardian. No person can visit the workhouse without leave of the guardians and master. The object of poor-law reform should be not so much the better treatment of workhouse inmates as the prevention of pauperism, and for this it is essential that children should no longer be confined in these institutions, but that they should be boarded out and sent to village and country homes and schools. This is done in England, but in Ireland the powers of the guardians are more limited, and those they have are not fully availed of.

The condition of the lunatic poor is another illustration of the deadlock arising from excessive centralization and overlapping of authorities. Harmless lunatics are confined in the workhouses, but in yards and cells, and under conditions which make recovery very improbable. The asylums proper are overcrowded. For example, there are at present 1,700 lunatics in a Dublin asylum calculated to contain 1,000. A malignant disease called beriberi, known to arise from overcrowding and bad food in Eastern countries, but of rare occurrence here, is now epidemic among the patients and attendants. Medical officers have called attention repeatedly to the insufficient accommodations in this asylum; the Board of Governors have resolved that more accommodation should be provided, but they have no power to provide it. Over them is a "Board of Control," and this board requires orders from the Privy Council before it can act. Money to build must be got from the British Treasury, which is too fully occupied with the affairs of the Empire to act very promptly; and this supreme authority declines to lend the money for new buildings at less than 3½ per cent., although the value of money indicated by the price of consols is about 2 per cent. The governors of the asylum cannot raise money in the open market unless they are enabled to do so by an act of the Imperial Parliament; this could not be got for a year, and even an unopposed act of Parliament costs an inordinate amount of money in fees and legal costs. While all these boards are resolving, considering, charging each other with delay, and the Treasury with avaricious and unreasonable usury, the poor lunatics are dying of beriberi and other diseases due to the overcrowded and unsanitary condition of their prison.

In every department of local administration, difficulties and insuperable obstacles due to excessive centralization and conflicting jurisdiction are met with. The road authorities are nominated by the Lord Lieutenant; a different body is constituted every year, and only meets twice a year for the hasty

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transaction of business, after which they cease to have any existence for six months. There is no control over this body, either by any department of the State or by the ratepayers; and there is no efficient audit of their accounts, nor are the accounts made up in any intelligible fashion. Hardly any municipal improvement can be carried out without an act of the Imperial Parliament authorizing special powers to be exercised; the cost of such an act may run, as it has during the past year, to from £10,000 to £20,000, and a large expense is frequently incurred in promoting improvement bills which may fall through on some trifling and technical point at the last moment. Each bill must pass through the stages of first, second, and third readings in the Houses of Lords and Commons; and fees are charged on an elaborate scale in each house. On a small, unopposed bill of a single clause the House fees alone amounted to £204. This system is a check on all municipal and local enterprise, is very costly to the ratepayers, and most oppressive to private individuals whose rights may be interfered with, as such persons can seldom bear the expense of opposing a bill promoted by railway or other wealthy companies.

It is a mistake to think that the home-rule movement consists even mainly in the land question. The social reformer is met at every turn by obstacles due to excessive centralization; red tape of imperial departments; ignorance, apathy, and neglect of the officials in London whose consent is necessary, or without whose concurrence no private Irish bill can pass through Parliament. The British Treasury, into whose hands 10 million pounds sterling passes every year from Ireland, scents a job in every proposal for expenditure in Ireland; and rightly so, for the system of governing Ireland from London has been and is saturated with jobbery and extravagance. It is impossible for the Treasury to discern the merits and demerits of the proposals laid before them; to decide whether a plan urged on them by "influential" persons in Ireland is meant to create new posts for private friends or political supporters, or to benefit the taxpayers.

In an excellent school-book, 'The English Citizen,' the author, Mr. Wyatt, describes the existing representative government in England thus: "The people send their representatives to Parliament to make laws and control the great executive departments; the people elect from among themselves those who carry on the local government of the village, the town, and the county; the people pay the rates and taxes, and they elect those who have the care of the public purse and the spending of the public money." No part of this description would apply to Ireland except that the people pay the rates and taxes. Representative government does not exist in local affairs, and in imperial matters Irishmen have practically no control in the raising or spending of the taxes paid into the imperial exchequer.

AN IRISHMAN.

BOTTICELLI'S ILLUSTRATIONS TO THE DIVINA COMMEDIA.

FLORENCE, October 22, 1896.

THE publication in a form almost popular of Sandro Botticelli's drawings for Dante's 'Divina Commedia' has long been called for, and is at last accomplished.* Something has been lost in reducing the illustrations to half the size of the originals. One or two have become quite inextricable in their entanglement, and the first sketching in with silver point has nearly disappeared. But these slight losses are more than recompensed by the comparatively small price and the extreme handiness of the present edition, bound in book form. Dr. Lippmann's introduction and commentary leave little or nothing to be desired in the way of information or elucidation.

To many these illustrations will be disappointing. They have heard that Botticelli was a great artist, and they expect him to give them, to an even intenser degree, feelings of the kind and quality that they have had in reading Dante. None of the gloom, the chill dread, the passion, the despair, the luridness of the "Inferno" will be brought home to them as they turn over Botticelli's designs. They will find scarcely an attempt at dramatic expression; they will find many more instances of the unconscious grotesque than of the realized sublime; and, throughout, conceptions as infantile as Fra Angelico's, but seldom so winning. Nor, taken as real illustration, are matters much improved in the "Purgatorio." There is no trace in Botticelli of the feeling of hope and convalescence and early morning which penetrates you as you read these cantos of Dante. And Sandro's "Paradiso" fails no less in communicating the one essential quality of this part of the poem—its sublimity. Here again the artist remains shut up in the Fra Angelico world. All in all, Rossetti's "Blessed Damozel" would have been a fitter subject for Botticelli's fancy than Dante's 'Divina Commedia.'

As illustrator, then, to the 'Divina Commedia,' Botticelli, it must be acknowledged, disappoints, partly because his genius was not at all Dantesque, but chiefly because the poem does not lend itself to satisfactory illustration. Although Dante describes with a vividness and tangibility surpassing all other poets', his effects seldom result from an appeal to vision only. Yet visual form, so small a part of the poet's outfit, is the illustrator's entire tool-chest. All his effects must come through it, and can come by it only. Think of making mere outline, as in the case of Botticelli's illustrations, convey all the manifold sensations, all the passions and emotions, which rapidly succeed each other in Dante's verses! One might as well attempt to render Beethoven's Ninth Symphony or Berlioz's "Dies Iræ" with no other instrument than the French horn.

And even if it were possible to make outline convey feelings as full and penetrating as Dante's, which episodes should the illustrator choose? They follow each other in bewildering number, with no connection in the realm of visually representable things, held together by nothing more tangible than the emotional tone of each canto. The fact is that Dante is not a great epic or dramatic poet. He has none of those stretches of culminating narrative, none of the working up to a climax, which lend themselves so admirably to the exercise of the visual imagination. In spite of the fact that he wrote one of the longest real poems in existence, and that this is apparently a narrative, Dante as a poet is great only as a master of the lyric, or (to make a concession) of the "dramatic lyric." Now the lyric is beyond the reach of the illustrator.

Dante does not lend himself to illustration; and, even if he did, Botticelli was not the man for the task. Then, pray, what is the value of these drawings? The answer is simple enough. Their value consists in their being drawings by Botticelli, not at all in their being drawings for Dante. And at this point the honest showman should warn the public that a drawing by Botticelli is something very peculiar. It does not so much as attempt to be correct; it is not a faithful reproduction of anything whatsoever. A hundred "artist-journalists" now at work publish daily drawings which are far more exact, more life-like, more clever, and more brilliant than any you will find in Botticelli's designs for the 'Divina Commedia.' If that is the only kind of drawing you care for, you will be no less disappointed in Sandro than if you went to him for interpretative illustration. His real place as a draughtsman is not among great Europeans, but with the great Chinese and Japanese, with Ririomin, Haronobu, and Hokusai. Like these, he is a supreme master of the single line. He gives it a swiftness and a purity which in the whole world of sensation find their analogy only in some few ecstatic notes of the violin, or in the most crystalline *timbre* of the soprano voice. His universe was of the simplest. It consisted of things that could and of things that could not furnish themes for rhapsodies in swift, pure lines. Dante happened to find himself among the blessed in this simple division; hence Botticelli chose him as a subject for his art. These illustrations required of our artist no coloring—with him always an afterthought—and scarcely any stereotyped composition. Here he could be free as nowhere else, and here, therefore, we see him in his most unadulterated form. The value of these drawings consists in their being the most spontaneous product of the greatest master of the single line that our modern Western world has yet possessed.

Now let us look at a few of these designs, beginning with the "Inferno," where Botticelli, feeling himself most weighed down by the story, is least himself. What do we see as we turn to the drawing for the opening canto? In the first place, a fretwork arrangement of exquisite pen strokes, by itself as pleasant as light on rippling water. Looked at closer, this smiling fretwork becomes a wood of graceful stems, whose branches cross and recross like the rapiers of courteous fencers. In rhythmic balance to the mass of this dainty forest you have a tangle of flower-bushes. Between, ramp three heraldic beasts, performing a figure with four men whose long cloaks fall into lines as swift and almost as pure as those of the tree stems. I defy any one to read gloom and terror into this piece of lineal decoration. Or turn to the illustration for Inf. xiii. Again a marvellous fretwork of lines which, seen closer, resolve themselves into a tangled wood where decorative dogs leap at decorative nudes, while even more decorative harpies sit upon the branches. We are in the pound of the suicides, but it would take a child with a feverish imagination to get a shiver out of this design. I will not deny that, in other sheets—indeed, in many of those for the "Inferno"—there is somewhat more correspondence with the text, but I doubt whether it ever is enough to be satisfactory as expression, while it is precisely in such drawings that the artist is least satisfactory as pure art. What does occur at times is a fortunate accord between the way Botticelli would naturally treat a subject and Dante's feeling about it. This occurs rarely in the "Inferno," where it would be hard to instance another example than that of the hypocrites under their copes of lead (singularly Japanese, by the way, in movement of line); but,

*'Drawings by Sandro Botticelli for Dante's Divina Commedia.' Reduced facsimiles after the originals in the Royal Museum, Berlin, and in the Vatican Library, with an Introduction by F. Lippmann. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896. Imperial quarto.

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out of the "Inferno," as we shall see, this accord gets more and more frequent.

But Botticelli's strength was not in arrangement alone. He was, above everything, master of the line in movement. He loved to make it run and leap, to make it whirl and dance. He was truly great only when he had a theme which permitted the exercise of this mastery. Such themes the "Purgatorio" and "Paradiso" offered him in plenty. Examples become too many to cite, and I shall confine myself to a few of the best. You will rarely see a frieze of greater decorative beauty than is formed by the nudes leaping into the purgatorial flames, as if they were the waters of the Fountain of Youth, while Virgil and Statius and Dante pass by discoursing on the relation between soul and body. This is the illustration to Purg. xxv, and, after this one, every consecutive drawing becomes, if possible, more and more beautiful. The flames leap even higher, and the nudes are worked in with them even more harmoniously. And presently you come to a design whose beauty keeps you spellbound: rare trees shoot up with exquisite grace, and between them you see the poets breathing gladly and gazing at the pure ether. One lady, with fascinating movement of figure and flutter of drapery, is gathering flowers, and another addresses the poets. Are we in Dante's terrestrial Paradise, or in Poliziano's Realm of Venus? No matter which, it could not be more lovely. This is followed by a succession of scenes in which Botticelli's talents find their completest satisfaction: the car of the Church, the grandly draped elders, the dancing, flower-scattering angels, the torch-bearers, the streaming smoke, the heraldic beasts—each and all so many exquisitely drawn laughing, leaping, whirling lines in wonderful arrangement. But the crown of the whole work is still to come: it is the design for Par. i. The daintiest trees ever drawn wave softly over a smooth meadow wet by the water of Eunoe's placid stream. Behind the rare leafage of the reed-like trees, Beatrice and Dante, with faces of ecstasy, are wafted gently up to the higher spheres. To convey in words a sensation corresponding to the singular beauty of this page would require Dante himself, or perhaps Shakspere or Keats. Line, movement, and pattern can go no further. None of the remaining illustrations can be put beside this one; yet they are all lovely. The type of them is the one for Par. vi—a pure circle studded with exquisite flamelets, Beatrice pointing upward as she floats, and Dante with his face and hands expressive of the utmost ecstasy. The flicker of the flamelets, the flutters of the draperies, the bending towards each other of the two figures, with the whole enclosed in a pure circle, form one of those happy patterns which, for the very reason of their childlike simplicity, one can gaze at for hours, being soothed and refreshed.

To the few scores, or let us hope, hundreds the world over, who feel the difference between art and illustration, as well as between art and fidelity to nature or mere dexterity, Dr. Lippmann's publication is one of the great events of recent years. B. Berenson.

Correspondence.

THE MORAL OF IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the present time McKinley appears to have 277 electoral votes, of which but 127 were cast for Harrison four years ago, when the campaign was on the question of tariff reform. Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and California declared as emphatically against protection in 1892 as they have against free silver in 1896. That any party could carry an election without the electoral votes of a large part of these States is exceedingly doubtful. Would it not be well for those who are demanding a new tariff bill to bear this in mind?

F. L. Bonney.

Boston, November 6, 1896.

PRINCETON'S UNIVERSITY INNOVATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As I have not noticed in your columns any allusion to the Princeton celebration, permit me to call attention to one of its aspects that has been little emphasized in the accounts in the daily and weekly papers. In inviting a number of distinguished foreign scholars to deliver courses of lectures on scientific and literary subjects during the week preceding the actual celebration, the authorities of Princeton took a step which should do more to make the occasion memorable than the burning of any amount of colored fire or the delivery of any number of after-dinner speeches, necessary as these adjuncts may be to a celebration. So far as is known to the writer, this step was a distinct innovation. To be sure, we have frequently had distinguished foreigners lecturing among us, but not usually to adorn such an occasion as this, nor upon such severe subjects. In Germany the excellent custom prevails, and it has lately been imitated in this country, that when a learned professor celebrates his jubilee, some of his former students join in the occasion by contributing pieces of original research, which they publish in the form of a book dedicated to the master. What could be a more suitable and permanent tribute? In like manner, what more appropriate to an academic celebration than the contribution, under the auspices of the university, of something of permanent value to the intellectual public?

As regards the quality of the lectures at Princeton, I will speak only of those of the most personal interest to myself. In inviting Professors Felix Klein and J. J. Thomson, the Princeton authorities secured two scientists of the first order in the departments of mathematics and physics; and the interest aroused in their lectures is attested by the fact that among their auditors were university professors from as far West as Chicago, and from Cambridge to Washington. These lectures were not a presentation of matter familiar even to a European public, but dealt with new, fresh, and extremely interesting problems. In his lectures on the Theory of the Top, Prof. Klein gave in a very concise form a brilliant and extremely suggestive exposition of the application of some of the latest developments of the Theory of Functions to a problem that has exercised some of the greatest minds among mathematicians, physicists, and astronomers. That the very recent subject of Automorphic or Fuchsian Functions should be necessary for the treatment of the motion of an ordinary peg top shows how much our mathematical methods will bear perfecting. Prof. Thomson, on the other hand, took as his subject what is practically a brand-new field, for while the phenomena of the Discharge of Electricity in Gases have been studied for years, very little of a satisfactory nature has been accomplished until quite recently. Moreover, some of the most interesting of these phenomena, those which occur in connection with the Röntgen Rays, were not known to exist earlier than last December. The lecturer devoted himself largely to the presentation of the results of his own work, giving evidence of an almost incredible degree of productiveness in the last few months, the results being no half-baked heterogeneous data, but fitting into well-considered theories in such a manner as to give rise to the conviction that we are on the verge of important discoveries in the domain of molecular physics.

I feel safe in saying that these two courses might have been attended with profit by every mathematician or physicist in the country, each of whom could hardly have failed to derive some inspiration therefrom. I am not aware that the authorities of Princeton have formally stated what they understand by the transformation of a college into a university, but may we not infer that the step that they have here taken betokens a true university spirit, and forms a fitting introduction to a career under the new and more imposing title? Arthur Gordon Webster.

Worcester, Mass., November 2, 1896.

ENGLISH IN PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have watched the debates on English teaching in the preparatory schools with surprise that one grave element of the problem should be so generally ignored. The professor and the littérateur might be expected to overlook a financial factor in practical education, but that the teacher should so suffer his case to go by default is passing strange. Permit me to state the problem for which thousands of teachers wish a solution.

Skill in composition is a question of practice under guidance and with criticism. Last year I sent to hundreds of teachers these words: "Long experience in the reading of themes would seem to prove that the careful criticism of twenty pages—letter-sheet size—about four thousand words—is a reasonable hour's work. Every pupil in the high school should write each week at least four pages, eight hundred words." Not in a single instance did this statement meet with dissent, but the teachers knew and I knew that the high school does not exist where these conditions can be satisfied. Any taxpayer whose wrath is great because his son is not better taught in composition, will find his indignation abating if he will but make a brief calculation. If one pupil writes four pages per week, and one teacher reads, with written criticism, twenty pages per hour, for what number of pupils will the whole time of one teacher suffice? Can the taxpayer solve that problem? If he can, the secondary schools can go far towards solving their problem.

But what is the answer as found to-day in our schools? Exceptional opportunities for observation give warrant for the statement that it is common custom with school-boards to require of the teacher of English as many hours in the recitation room as are given by any other teacher on the staff, and that the utmost allowance granted for the criticism of papers is, with rare exceptions, forty-five minutes a day, although the pupils instructed may exceed two hundred. When the day's

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work in the class-room is finished, the teacher turns with weary brain to the exhausting toil of criticism, and donates to the public as much labor as her conscience compels or her strength permits.

Assuredly, our masters demand the full tale of brick, but grant us no straw. The profession of English teaching loses many competent teachers, notwithstanding its attractiveness, because the burden of essay criticism, imposed but not paid for, is greater than they can bear. The secondary schools could meet without difficulty the full demand of Harvard—I speak from experience—if adequate provision in time and teaching skill were granted by those who hold the purse-strings.

C. D.

November 4, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The ignorance of English among college freshmen has narrowly missed becoming much worse. It is admitted that those students have formed their style, so far as they have any, on the newspapers which they read as soon as they could read at all. In them were their first holiday excursions from dull drilling in readers. To them they owe their vocabulary, their grammar, rhetoric, orthography. In all departments the literary standing of country papers, which have furnished the main reading for the childhood of half our collegians, has been as a rule very low. In many cases a boy would learn from such models more errors than truths. The inevitable result would prove the paradox true, that the more one learns the less he may know; his ignorance growing greater and greater in proportion to his knowledge. Thus in the lowest deep a lower deep was still opening: the greater the quantity of information, the worse its quality.

But half these baleful influences of the rural press have now passed away. A majority of country papers now show on half their pages no bad spelling, nothing ungrammatical, scarcely a word misused or misplaced. If classically dull, all is coldly correct—proper words in proper places. These pages, too, which do not shrink from criticism, contain original articles by well-paid writers which form attractive reading, and the selections in themselves and by pictorial decorations fascinate every country child. This better half (forming the "patent insides" or "outsides") is the half for the last decade or two most read at farmers' firesides by the children who are still in their plastic period. Through the attractions of these non-local portions, the patent insides or outsides, many an element of accuracy and sound speech which cannot be condemned has been revealed unto babes while hid from their wise and prudent fathers, whose eyes seldom wander beyond the uncouth columns of illiterate home talent and home presswork. Had the improvement of preparatory schools during the last score of years kept pace with that of preparatory newspapers, the wall which preparatory students build would have been so propped where it was weakest, that college master builders would find little fault with the foundations laid for their superstructures. James D. Butler.

CHAUCER IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With regard to a recent correspondence in your columns on "Chaucer's First Italian Journey," I beg to draw attention to the fact that the date assigned there to this journey (December 1, 1372, to May 23, 1373) is the date first given to the world in the 'Fresh Chaucer Notices' published December 20, 1873, by Dr. Furnivall. Dr. F. gives in this publication (which was later added to the 'Trial Forewords'), unfortunately in the succinctness of a "Calendar," the following note (p. 130):

"Exchequer to pay C. for his journeys to Genoa and Florence, 1374 or 3. Exch. L. T. R. *Foreign Accounts*, 47 Ed. 3, Roll 3.

"C.'s accounts for his journeys to Genoa and Florence, from 1 Dec., 1372, to 23 May, 1373."

When I saw this years ago, it became clear to me that May 23 marked the last day of his journey, and was to be accepted as such until some new proof should be brought to show the contrary. I used this "new" date in all the syllabi even of my beginners' classes in Chaucer, and have often been astonished to see this "new" date persistently ignored. This astonishment prompted me to write the following words in my review of Skeat's Chaucer, printed in the *Dial* of February 16, 1895:

"In the annalistic biography I do not miss anything; but when, under 1373, Dr. Skeat says of Chaucer's first visit to Italy, 'All that is known of this mission is that he visited Florence as well as Genoa, and that he returned before November 22, 1373, on which day he received his pension in person,' he does not lay sufficient stress on the fact, brought to light by Dr. Furnivall in 1873, and mentioned by Skeat only in a note, that Chaucer's accounts of this journey run for the period between December 1, 1372, to May 23, 1373. It would be strange indeed if these accounts had stopped in the midst of his journey. The more natural interpretation seems to be, that Chaucer's journey did not last *more than six months*; and so this document would corroborate what Prof. Lounsbury expressed, for the first time, I think, in the introduction to his edition of the 'Parliament of Foules'—that Chaucer had no time to learn Italian in Italy, but was sent there just because of his knowledge of the Italian language. Besides, the document seems to show that Chaucer returned months before the 22d of November [1373], there being no evidence that he stayed longer than May 23. The burden of proof then rests upon those who assume the later date."

Let me add in conclusion that I am very glad to learn that the document itself will, finally, be made accessible; it will, as the extracts show (*quo die rediit Lond.*), give conclusive proof of what before was only to be surmised from Furnivall's too short abstract. We fortunately have so many documents connected with Chaucer's name that I think it would be a debt of gratitude to Fate to print a whole volume of "Chaucer Documents," and the sooner the better.—Yours respectfully,

Ewald Flügel.

Stanford University, October 15, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The conclusiveness of Miss Scott's argument that Chaucer met Petrarch at Padua or at Arqua in 1372 or 1373 rests on the assumption that Chaucer is to be identified with the "Clerk of Oxenford." From the descriptions of the two in the 'Canterbury Tales' we know they both were shy. But, on the other hand, the Clerk is lean (A 287-288):

"As lene was his hors as is a rake,
And he nas nat right fat, I undertake";

while from the Prologue to the Rime of Sir Thopas we are probably to infer that Chaucer is represented in the 'Canterbury Tales' as portly—a description that agrees with the portrait in Occleve (B 1889-1892):

"Now war yow, sirs, and lat this man have place;
He in the waast is shape as wel as I;
This were a popet in an arm t'enbrace
For any womman, smal and fair of face."

Here, however, it is not absolutely impossible to take the second line as ironical rather than the third and fourth.

Moreover, if the Clerk and Chaucer are to be identified, Chaucer himself is the only person to whom three tales are assigned.

Again, the Clerk bears less resemblance to the Chaucer of later years than does the Squire to Chaucer in his youth. In 1359 Chaucer held some position, not clearly defined, in the train of Lionel afterward Duke of Clarence, whom he accompanied on King Edward's expedition to France. The country visited on this occasion was not greatly different from the scene of the travels of the Squire, who

"had been sometyme in chivachye
In Flaundres, in Artoys, and Picardye."

Numerous references to early poems now lost make it probable that Chaucer exercised his poetic faculty very young; and behind the existing early poems, from which some good biographers have inferred unutterable heart-burnings, we may, if we will, see the half-scrutable smile that tells us Chaucer has been only such another "lovyere and a lusty bachilere" as his own Squire.

It is, then, highly improbable that Chaucer intended any one of his pilgrims for a faithful copy of himself, unless it be the slightly sketched figure always mentioned in the first person. Of Chaucer, as of Shakspere, we may say that every line of his that really lives is impregnated with his personality. In his poetry he made freer use of his own personal history than did Shakspere, but his history no less than his personality is subjected to his art, and biographical satisfaction is not often found. With a poet's instinct he has preferred to open to us vistas of charming possibilities, and to leave us to their contemplation unannoyed by the officiousness of a cicerone. Henry Barrett Hinckley.

Northampton, Mass., October 24, 1896.

Notes.

Miss Mary Kingsley, who has inherited her father's love of travel and of nature, will publish through Macmillan her 'Log of a Naturalist in West Africa,' north of the Congo. The same house announces 'Domestic Service,' by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar; 'Charles Darwin and the Theory of Natural Selection,' by Edward B. Poulton; and 'Michael Faraday, his Life and Work,' by Prof. Sylvanus P. Thompson.

'Philip Gilbert Hamerton: An Autobiography (1834-1858), and a Memoir by his Wife (1858-1894)' will bear of right the imprint of Roberts Bros., Boston, familiar in connection with this writer's works.

Mr. Frank R. Stockton will contribute the 'Story of New Jersey,' and Mr. Joel Chandler Harris the 'Story of Georgia,' to Messrs. Appleton's "Stories from American History."

'Karine; A Story of Swedish Love,' is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

A complete edition of Alexander Kielland's works, in sixteen volumes, is announced by Gyldendal of Copenhagen. Although Kielland's first novel appeared less than twenty years ago, he has published nothing during the past five years, and it seems hardly probable

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that any additions will be made to the series here announced.

It is now five years since we essayed an estimate of the taking and the permanent qualities of Mr. John Fiske's 'American Revolution.' We should have been flattered, in the revision the work has undergone, to see the minor blemishes we then remarked removed from the new edition just brought out by his publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; but we accept as compensation for a neglect of our strictures, as well as for the sufficiently popular-patriotic tone of the whole narrative, Mr. Fiske's new concluding paragraph, ranking the Geneva settlement of the *Alabama* claims above the victories at Saratoga and Yorktown, and breathing a prayer for the success of Anglo-Saxon international arbitration. It remains to speak only of the remarkable beauty of this reprint, as bookmaking, with the wealth of illustrations almost without exception genuinely helpful—antiquarian and historical; carefully selected portraits; contemporary prints; caricatures; maps; views of buildings and places, etc., with a minimum of imaginative work. The portraits are generally engraved and set in the text, but there are numerous and excellent photogravures, and the whole series is indexed with admirable particularity as to source. This history is now assured of a fresh lease of life.

Very dainty indeed and quite another affair for the reader's hand, are the two volumes of Thoreau's 'Cape Cod,' to which the same publishers give a holiday attire. The copious illustrations, nearly all marginal, are from water-color drawings by Amelia M. Watson, and no one familiar with the Cape will deny their characteristic fidelity. They are fairly to be called charming, as are the print and binding; and happily they are mostly "centred" on the page—that is, they square with the text, either above or below. We ask any one to judge whether typographic taste is not subserved better, say, by the offshore view at the head of p. 35, vol. ii., than by the trailing vine on the following pp. 54, 55, or by the diagonals of bayberry on pp. 136, 137, vol. i. But these eccentricities, for which, we suppose, the art of Japan is ultimately responsible, are comparatively few in number. The vignette on p. 30, vol. ii., pretty enough in itself, fails as an illustration, the sun setting over Provincetown (presumably); but if this be possible in nature, it is not what Thoreau saw—*his* sun "set in the Bay," and it seemed odd to him "that at the same moment the sun was setting behind our native hills, which were just below the horizon in that direction."

Mr. Gosse gives, in his introduction to a new edition of Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero-Worship' (London and New York: Ward, Lock & Bowden), a surprising estimate of the extensive sale of this work in fifty-five years, without present abatement. This latest form of it therefore properly belongs to the series of "Nineteenth Century Classics," and is in all respects attractive to the eye and likely to enlist the curiosity of fresh readers. The frontispiece is after Millais's unfinished portrait.

Mr. Anning Bell's five designs give the chief distinction to Keble's 'Christian Year' as reissued by Methuen & Co., London (Philadelphia: Lippincott). They are simple, slightly archaic, and skilful, and harmonize well with the heavy black type and rubrication of the pretty volume.

The advent of a new and considerably enlarged edition of Prof. Cunningham's 'Growth of English Industry and Commerce during the Early and Middle Ages' (Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan), furnishes pleasing evidence of the increasing attention now paid to economic history, and of the author's just reputation and unflagging industry. There are innumerable slight corrections and additions; the treatment of several points, especially in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, has been amplified; and some conclusions of the earlier edition to which exception had been taken are restated with fresh evidence. On most points in dispute Prof. Cunningham abides by the opinions he has already expressed; but on the subject of the changes in craft gilds in the sixteenth century he tells us that he has "considerably modified" his view "in consequence of Prof. Ashley's recently published investigation." Oresme's "Tractatus de Origine Monetarum" is no longer reprinted in the appendix, but it is hinted that the Syndics of the Press may shortly issue it in a separate form. We trust that when it comes to be edited, due consideration will be given to Endemann's criticism of Roscher's eulogy. Among the welcome additions to the appendix may be noticed the Anglo-Saxon description of the duties of a Reeve (hitherto to be found only in *Anglia*), with a translation and notes contributed by Prof. Skeat. Whatever may be thought of Prof. Cunningham's general conclusions, the book is an inexhaustible mine of learning and suggestion, and arouses a feeling of personal gratitude in all serious students of the subject.

'American Book-Prices Current' for the year ending September 1, 1896, compiled by Luther S. Livingston and published in a limited edition of 600 copies by Dodd, Mead & Co., turns over a new leaf in respect of arrangement, which in the former and initial volume followed the English example. Grouping by sales is now discarded, but the books sold are alphabetized by author or (if anonymous) by title, with the date of sale affixed to each entry, while the index is of subjects, with classification. The compiler has especially catered to the present passion for American local history and genealogy. A wholly new feature is a section of autograph and manuscript sales, in a separate alphabet. As the minimum price considered is $3, it will be seen that these 7,500 lots embrace nearly everything which has auctionable value. Cincinnati sales have been added to those of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia—whether for the nonce or not remains to be seen. On the whole, one can but praise as improvements the changes we have briefly indicated. The work remains very useful for bibliographical reference in the whole field of literature in English.

'Syria from the Saddle,' by Albert Payson Terhune, published by Silver, Burdett & Co. of Boston, is a record of a trip through Palestine in the late autumn and early winter of 1893. Mr. Terhune entered the country by way of Beirut and Damascus. He travelled alone with a good dragoman, who provided for his comfort admirably, and he enjoyed himself thoroughly. His manifest enjoyment of what he did and what he saw is the one thing which makes the book readable, for he has absolutely nothing new to tell. He alludes frequently to the numerous weighty and uninteresting tomes which, as he alleges, have been written about Palestine, and in contrast with these he seeks to make his own book light. The result is a flippancy which ultimately becomes tedious. In his preface he says that he has tried "to glean a few great historical and sacred facts from the mass of foolish and priestly traditions that surround every landmark of the country." As he is quite ignorant of the history and archæology of the country, his gleanings are worthless and sometimes almost laughable. To illustrate his unfitness for such work, he seems to regard the word "Aryan" as synonymous with "Oriental," and accordingly classes the Syrians as Aryans. The book is well printed on good paper. The illustrations, which are numerous and very fair, are chiefly from photographs taken by the author.

Some nine years ago we reported the publication, then recent, of an elaborate Hindî treatise on the Differential Calculus. To its author, Mahâmahopâdhyâya Sudhâkara Dvivedî, who has since become Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in the Benares Sanskrit College, his fellow-countrymen are now indebted for a companion work, also in Hindî, on the Integral Calculus, bearing the imprint of the Government Press, Allahabad. Besides a preface and a minute table of contents, it occupies 443 generous pages. Its title, necessarily Sanskritic, is *Chala-râs'i-kalana*. No mere translation or compilation, it propounds numerous new methods, with the claim of their being simplifications of those current among European mathematicians. One of these, in connection with which such accepted authorities as Todhunter, Williamson, Hymers, De Morgan, and De Moivre are taxed with operoseness, is stated at length in English. The volume concludes with much valuable matter on the Calculus of Variations and the Dynamics of a Particle. In the occupancy, by Pandit Sudhâkara, of the chair long so ably filled by the learned Bâpûdeva S'âstrî, the Benares College is conspicuously fortunate.

We have received the first two parts of a Lexicon Frisicum ('Friesch Woordenboek') planned to be exhaustive of the genuine living Frisian speech. We say *genuine*, for the so-called East Frisian Dictionary of Koolman is not a dictionary of Frisian but of the Low German which has encroached upon lands once part of Frisia. The present work is professedly a continuation and expansion of the Lexicon Frisicum of the late J. H. Halbertsma, which covered the alphabet *A—Feer*. The present editors are Dijkstra and Hettema, with whom is associated Winkler for proper names. The work is published by authority of the province of Frisia and the Upper Council of Holland. Definitions and explanations are in Dutch, with an occasional definition in Latin; thus, "ăld, adj., *vetus, senescens*, oud." The two parts comprise 80 pages in double columns of ordinary words, ending with *bapekauwer*, and 64 pages of proper names, ending with *Dirk*. These figures will give some idea of the comprehensiveness of the whole work (in about 25 parts). The publishers are Meijer & Schaafsma, in Leeuwarden. James Parker & Co., Oxford, are agents for Great Britain and this country. The price of each part is two shillings. It is hardly necessary to say that we greet the new enterprise most cordially; it will be a valuable contribution to our knowledge of that speech which is probably most akin to our own. On some future occasion, when the work is farther advanced, we hope to speak more in detail of its special features. In the meanwhile we need only say that the names of the editors are a sufficient guarantee of scholarly method.

The domain of Keltic study is to be enriched with a new periodical by the side of the elder *Revue Celtique*. The present enterprise is entitled *Zeitschrift für Celtische Philolo-*

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gie, under the editorship of Kuno Meyer and L. C. Stern (Halle: Niemeyer). We are indebted to David Nutt, London, for the first part (pp. 176). The periodical is to be at once scientific and cosmopolitan. The present part contains papers upon General Keltic Philology, upon Gaulish, Manx, Welsh, Breton, and Irish, written in German, French, and English. To give, within our narrow limits, even a slight notion of the range and value of the contents would be of course impossible. All the papers seem to us excellent and valuable, each paper in its own way. We are curious, however, to see whether the elder *Revue* is to maintain its existence in competition with the new *Zeitschrift*, or is to be merged in it. We anticipate the latter. In one feature certainly the *Zeitschrift* gives abundant evidence of editorial vigor: it is no small feat to have brought "under one roof" two such antagonists as Zimmer and Whitley Stokes.

On October 10, Holger Drachmann, the leading Danish poet and novelist, celebrated his fiftieth birthday and his twenty fifth "Author-Jubilee," as the Danes call it. On account of the illness of the poet, who is at present living in Hamburg, the public demonstrations were limited to the sending of an enormous number of telegrams from admirers in Europe and America, and the performance of two of his plays at the Royal Theatre in Copenhagen and at the Stadt Theatre in Altona. English readers, whose acquaintance with Drachmann is limited to one romance, will be surprised to learn that he is the author of no fewer than forty-six volumes of poems, dramas, novels, short stories, and sketches, and of two unpublished dramas. After devoting the first years of his manhood to marine painting, Drachmann suddenly discovered that he was a poet; his new talent finding expression in a volume of lyrics now for the first time republished. His most important novel is 'Forskrevet' (Condemned), which is largely autobiographical; his most attractive, though not his strongest, drama is the opera "Der var engang" (Once upon a Time), founded on Andersen's 'The Swineherd,' with music by Lange-Müller; his best poems and tales are those dealing with the sea. His verse has a splendid sweep like that of the ocean waves he loves to describe, and the waves are Danish waves. For, in spite of his wandering habits, Drachmann is as Danish as Holberg, with that combination of sweetness and strength which Norwegians mistake for weakness. With his great height, broad shoulders, and flashing eyes, Holger Drachmann looks like a true poet, though a poet of the Elizabethan rather than of the nineteenth-century type.

From Copenhagen is announced the death of Emil Christian Count Krag-Juel-Vind-Frijs, the greatest landowner in Denmark and at one time one of the leading Danish public men. Count Frijs was born December 8, 1817. In 1858 he entered the Rigsdag, and in 1865 became President of the Council, in which position he effected the constitutional changes that still obtain. His greatest service to his country, however, was rendered soon after his retirement in 1870, when he resisted public feeling, especially that of the capital, by preserving Denmark's neutrality in the Franco-Prussian war. How great and how difficult a service this was, no people can appreciate better than we Americans of this present Jingo period. But it was to his estate and his people that Frijs's energies were devoted; and his tenants, the majority of whom became independent landowners through his efforts, have always been among the most prosperous and contented in Denmark. Count Frijs was one of the very few persons outside of royalty on whom the order of the Elephant had been conferred.

—It will surprise no one who watches the signs of the times in the magazines to find that in the *Atlantic* for November the foreign and Western elements of our population are subjects uppermost with writers of papers of practical import. The cases which Jacob A. Riis has selected to illustrate, in his article "Out of the Book of Humanity," the burdens of pathetic destiny, are all taken not merely from the immigrant denizens of New York, but from that large portion of them to which our language is a foreign tongue. The German, as he appears in the steerage of an outward-bound ship, and the German-American, as he adds to or detracts from the spiritual as well as commercial welfare of the country, are sympathetically discussed by "Josiah Flynt." That the German-American, having slipped his moorings from a country where manners and etiquette are important, where Government bears heavily upon him, and where earnings are small, should be charged on the side of his losses with giving himself up to a "materialism more or less gross," and inclining to value life purely in dollars and cents, is not to be wondered at. That he, together with the shrewder Scandinavian, is safer than our Americans "in this day of crazes" is a verdict pronounced in his favor by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, who, in a graphic paper on the "Causes of Agricultural Unrest," emphasizes the "satanic" skill with which the managers of the silver party, at first stealthily and secretly, and later with noise and open activity, have played upon the discontent of the wheat-farmer and cotton-grower. The developments special to agriculture radiating all over the world and narrowing in upon himself, our Western farmer has not the economic outlook to understand. Hence, and through no fault of his honesty, his present unholy political alliances. Methods of farming which have avoided agricultural ups and downs are described in William E. Smythe's "Utah as an Industrial Object-Lesson."

—How the Chinaman compares in the personal observation of a city missionary with other foreign contingents of the population of New York may be learned from an article in this month's *Century* by Helen F. Clark. Measured by the standards of races out of which citizens are promptly made, this "alien" has various points, in manners, in morals, and in the tone, even, of his amusements, to recommend him. To philanthropists, struggling with the vexed questions of humanity in asylums and penal institutions, he gives cause for gratitude, since he makes it a habit to keep out of these popular retreats and to look after his own poor. General Horace Porter enters in this number upon his reminiscences of campaigning with General Grant. To the eulogy with which his memoirs are introduced in an "Editorial Preface" it would be difficult to find anything fresh to add. "Why the Confederacy Failed" is a paper recommended by the strength of personal conviction and the liveliness with which it is written, whether or not the reader may be disposed to find other causes of failure than the three here given, viz., the excessive issue of paper money, the policy of dispersing troops along an extended frontier, and the neglect of the cavalry. Serial stories are begun by Dr. Weir Mitchell and Marion Crawford, and Boutet de Monvel contributes illustrations of the life of Joan of Arc. But the intrinsic value of the number is centred in Prof. G. E. Woodberry's sonnet-series, "America and England, 1895-1896," in which a grave political theme is warmed and elevated to a high poetic level.

—In *Harper's Magazine* a profitable subject for reflection is brought forward by Prof. Woodrow Wilson's treatment of the character and bearing of "The First President of the United States." This is the dignity with which Washington, although so glad to resign his high office, strenuously surrounded it while he held it; a Governor of Massachusetts, a French Minister, and factions of the people themselves in headlong haste to espouse the cause of the French Revolution, being among those who fell back before the authority they found hedging the President of a republic. There is reason to hope that in the downward plunge from Washington's ideals to the tainted conceptions of the present the lowest depth has been reached. The moral to be drawn from this last of Prof. Wilson's increasingly interesting series of biographical studies is reinforced by Poultney Bigelow, whose first investigations, undertaken in the interest of readers of *Harper's*, of "White Man's Africa," disclose the not unparalleled fact that, "in the memory of the oldest inhabitant of Cape Town, such a thing as an American Consul who could keep sober after twelve o'clock noon was too seldom known"; large interests, not merely at the Cape, but throughout South Africa being nevertheless at the mercy of the Consul. Thomas A. Janvier, delightfully at home in the voluble atmosphere of Marseilles, has needed for the weaving of his picturesque story, "The Fish of M. Quissard," nothing more than trifles light as air, since it is in the artistic manner of doing more than in the thing done that the charm of this bit of human comedy is to be found.

—In the current *Scribner's*, Capt. C. J. Melliss of the Bombay Infantry draws again on his excellent repertory of sporting adventures in the jungle. The several yarns he now spins of panthers bagged in the sweat of the brow in central India deserve to be punctuated by the applause of after-dinner audiences, to which it is a pity they should be lost. Some masterly illustrations of the wily game are Evert Van Muyden's conspicuous share in the success of these stories in article form. Other adventures, involving the hardships of an exploring expedition in frozen Alaska and the British Northwest Territory, are described in an article by Frederick Funston, "Over the Chilkoot Pass to the Yukon," to which a kodak has supplied the basis for illustrations. Illustrations *ad libitum* accompany M. H. Spielmann's article on the "Renaissance of Lithography," but the rewards attending a perusal of the text are inappreciable. Equally unproductive of anything more than a brushing of the skirts of information is a reading of Mary Gay Humphrey's "Women Bachelors in New York," and, with the exception of Wolcott Le Clear Beard's tale of an Arizona hero, "Specs," search among the short stories brings nothing noticeable to light. An article on "What America Has Done for Whist" will probably find numerous readers among the votaries of Mrs. Battle's noble art.

—Mrs. Bain gives utterance in *Mind* to a thesis which would seem not to need her eloquent presentation of it to secure immediate acceptance—namely, that nothing would con-

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duce more to progress in well-being than the establishment of lecture-courses on ethics from a purely practical standpoint. Leaving aside religious considerations, which are already sufficiently well presented from the pulpit, the basis of desirable conduct on which all can unite is the production of happiness in the long run for as many as can be made happy, ourselves included. But there are countless questions, both in private life and in politics, in regard to which the man of action, who cannot give his days and his nights to thinking out long trains of consequences, might be immensely assisted if he could listen to frequent and full discussion of all the consequences of conduct, so far as the good and wise men of the time are able to make them out. And not only a wider knowledge of consequences, but a vivifying of his sympathy for the pains and pleasures of others, would result from seeing how they are regarded by men of feelings deeper than his own. Why should the religious person alone have the advantage of being pleaded with in the interest of more self-sacrificing conduct than he inclines to of his own accord? Why should the newspapers, which, with a few scattered exceptions, are below rather than above the average moral tone of the community, be our only regularly constituted secular instructors in the art of conduct? The only objection to the scheme proposed, aside from the fact that no benevolent rich man has yet arisen who has wished to endow such courses of lectures and discussions, may be put in the words of the poacher who said, in reply to the clergyman who asked him why he did not go to church, "I already knows more than I does." But, in spite of this far-reaching drawback, it cannot be doubted that, for all who are not inherently incapable of sympathizing with their fellow-men, the amplest demonstration of how conduct, directly and indirectly, may injure and benefit others, will do all that can be done (however slow may be the progress) in the direction of moralization.

—The *Revue Encyclopédique* of October 10 contains a brief notice of Miss Ellen Key, a Swedish lady who has attracted much attention in her native land by her efforts to ameliorate the condition of workingmen. Jointly with Dr. Anton Nyström, she founded the Workingmen's Institute of Sweden, which now owns a handsome building in Stockholm and branch establishments in all the provincial towns. It has courses of lectures, by the most distinguished literary and scientific authorities of the country, on historical, philosophical, scientific and literary subjects, adapted to the comprehension of laboring men, who attend in large numbers. Swedish literature is the topic treated by Miss Key, who, in addition to her philanthropic labors, has done not a little literary work, publishing a number of books, chiefly on sociological themes. One of her writings is a biography of Anne Charlotte Leffler, Duchess of Caianello, who is widely known through her sketch of the life of Sophie Kovalevsky. Miss Key is a sort of lay confessor of the working classes, who come in crowds every Sunday to her modest lodging to consult her on every possible question, from their family tiffs to their controversies about wages. She is a believer in Socialism for Sweden, but only as a transitional means to larger ends. She desires the abolition of private property and the enfranchisement of women, but the idea of a machine society is deeply repugnant to her. She believes in individualism somewhat like that professed by Nietzsche.

—The inaugural sessional address given on October 20 at Manchester College, Oxford, was this year characteristically assigned to Mr. Claude Montefiore, who announced himself boldly, but not without a flavor of enjoyment in certain mediæval associations of the phrase, as an "unconverted Jew." His topic was "*Unitarianism and Judaism in their* relations to each other," and it soon appeared that the Judaism he had in mind was reformed or liberal Judaism. Judaism of this sort, then, needed to learn from Unitarianism that the unity of God may be considered metaphysically rather than as a mere denial of plurality. Again, Mr. Montefiore argued that "Jews might join hands with Unitarians in a common determination, to the advantage of both, to find out the truth, so far as it still can be found, about Jesus and the New Testament." Here the speaker touched upon a hope that some day there might be at Oxford a School of Judaic Theology parallel to Manchester and Mansfield. Though he deemed this an impossible dream, it seems less so now that the Duke of Norfolk and others are actually building a Roman Catholic college at Oxford. The identity of attitude between Reformed Judaism and Unitarianism certainly appeared in Montefiore's striking peroration: "We, too," he exclaimed, "must have our saints, as well as the Orthodox; and let us remember—perhaps the modern Reformed Jew needs to remember this more than yourselves—that no saint ever confused reason with God. Our liberal forms of faith are on their trial; let us attempt to prove their power. Without an infallible Church, without an infallible Book, without an infallible Law, let us ardently proclaim in word, and humbly seek to show forth in deed, that men may still live and work, realizing God's presence, and loving Him with all their heart, with all their soul, and with all their might."

MUTHER'S HISTORY OF MODERN PAINTING.

The History of Modern Painting. By Richard Muther, Professor of Art History at the University of Breslau, late Keeper of the Prints at the Munich Pinakothek. Macmillan Co. 1896. 3 vols., imperial octavo. Pp. 2,304. More than 1,300 illustrations.

It is hard to imagine a more difficult subject for historical treatment than that which Prof. Muther has chosen—the painting of the nineteenth century. That painting has developed so many opposing "tendencies," divided itself into so many "schools," taken part in such various "movements," that it seems a very chaos—a labyrinth without a clue. Yet a clue the historian must find, some thread of logical development running through the mingled skein he must succeed in disentangling, if he is to write a history at all and not a mere catalogue of artists "with some observations upon their works." The chief merit of the present work—and it has many and great merits as well as grave faults—is that Prof. Muther has found such a main thread of development, and has succeeded fairly well in following it through its myriad windings.

This line of development of modern painting which Prof. Muther has set himself to trace is, in a word, the slow reconquest of nature and the gradual loosening of the bonds with which the "classical revival" had bound art. The history of modern painting properly begins with Giorgione. Spanish and Flemish painting was founded upon Venetian, and the English painting of the eighteenth century was founded upon the Flemish, as was the charming art of Watteau. Then came Winckelmann and Carstens and David, and the hands of the clock were set back upon the dial, and painting, everywhere but in England, denied its birthright. In England alone a healthy naturalism continued to exist, and it is with the English painters of the eighteenth century that Prof. Muther begins his history. Reynolds, in spite of his idealistic theory, remained in his art a painter of portraits. Hogarth was the father of modern genre, and Gainsborough, by far the most artistic temperament of them all, founded the school of English landscape which was destined to revolutionize French painting and that of the world.

First came the Romantic revolution, which, in subject, dethroned the Greeks and Romans and substituted for them the men of the Middle Ages, and in technic reconquered color. The school of Fontainebleau began the serious study of landscape, and Millet set man in nature, and, in his peasant figures, brought the modern man into art. What he did for the peasant, the illustrators and Courbet first did for the man of the town. Finally came Manet and the impressionists, with the analysis of light, and the last shackle was struck from the limbs of painting. Art was free to occupy itself with any subject-matter and to develop any manner that suited the idiosyncrasy of the individual artist, and the time was now ripe for a "new idealism," which should interpret the mind of the nineteenth century instead of docilely imitating the methods of past ages.

Prof. Muther's qualifications for tracing the history of this evolution are many. His point of view is perhaps the only one from which such a history could be written, that of a convinced advocate of modernity. His knowledge is vast and his taste is catholic. As a German he is inclined to give more space to the history of painting in Germany than men of other nationalities would be likely to think its due, but it is rarely that he can be accused of undue enthusiasm for German art. No one could be more severe in judgment upon Cornelius, Kaulbach and the other German idealists than he; and the importance of the painting of France in modern art-history is duly recognized. He is not, however, exempt from the defects of his qualities, and his method leads him to be sometimes unjust to those painters who were not directly part of the movement he is chronicling. That a painter "brought nothing new" to the development of art is often, with him, that painter's sufficient condemnation. Now systematizing is all very well, and it is instructive to remark on the historical significance of this or that artist; but, on the whole, the *artistic* importance of a painter is not the same as the historic. A painter may have been a great influence, and so have an historical importance which the success of his own work would hardly justify, while another may have had little or no influence upon his contemporaries or successors, and yet have produced work which, however far it may lie outside the main stream of development, is of an essential quality that insures his immortality. An instance of the first of these types is Édouard Manet, a painter who rarely reached his own ideal, whose work is fragmentary and, on the whole, unsuccessful, but whose influence was

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and still is far-reaching and profound. An instance of the second type is Prudhon, to whom, perhaps, Prof. Muther is not unjust, and another is Baudry, towards whom his injustice is noticeable. For it cannot be too clearly understood that the final question about any artist is not, Was he in sympathy with the spirit of his time, or did he greatly influence his successors? but simply, Did he do work of essential beauty, in whatever manner, and which is worthy of the attention of mankind? Judged by this test, Prudhon and Baudry are both among the immortals, and it may be safely prophesied that they will ever be reckoned among the glories of the century.

Another result of Prof. Muther's method is some confusion of chronology. We believe his idea of the main stream of tendency is correct, but individuals have an awkward way of refusing by their dates to fit into his general scheme. Of course the various schools overlap in a puzzling way, and realists and idealists insist on being born when they were least to be looked for. Some painters have taken part in many different movements, and thus the account of the work of Lessing is scattered through two volumes and that of the work of Menzel through three. The Pre-Raphaelite movement in England being considered mainly as a movement toward realism, its history has to be written with scarce any reference to Rossetti, who appears by himself in the last book, devoted to the "new idealism." It is in this book that the strangest freaks of chronology appear, for it begins with Blake, who died in 1828, before the Romantic revolution had begun, and names as the four great exponents of the movement to-day Gustave Moreau, Puvis de Chavannes, Arnold Boecklin, and Burne-Jones, three of whom are veterans of seventy years of age, and the youngest of whom only continues the work of Rossetti, who was born within two years of the other three. Yet is Prof. Muther indisputably right, and these veterans, who have quietly ignored the strife of the schools, and have each gone his own way regardless of others, are the representatives to-day of the art of the future. It is evident that the full completion of the naturalistic evolution was not necessary to render their work possible, but it was perhaps necessary to make it understood and welcomed. They were before their time, not of it, and those who thought they were leading the procession have only now come up with this advanced guard, whom they had thought behind them.

Apart from this perhaps inevitable confusion, a work of so vast a scope must needs show inequalities of execution. In books i. and ii., "The Legacy of the Eighteenth Century" and "The Escape into the Past," the facts were already pretty well digested, and there is small criticism to make. Book iii., "The Victory of the Moderns," is mainly good, though one feels that the categories are somewhat elastic, and that system has sometimes made strange bedfellows. In book iv., "The Painters of Life," the vast output of the painting of to-day is attempted to be arranged by countries; France, Spain, Italy, England, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Russia, America, and Germany being given each a chapter. No man knows this output well enough to give any clear view of it, and here the book drops necessarily into the catalogue vein. Name follows name with no sense conveyed of relative importance or real significance. The book becomes quite unreadable, a mere cyclopædia useful for reference only. In the last book, "The New Idealism," things become better again, and the history moves to a comprehensible conclusion.

The chief fault of the book, however, is its inordinate length. It is not only what the French call an *œuvre de longue haleine;* it may fairly be called in English a long-winded work. Again and again a simple thought looms through a haze of words; again and again, with truly German laboriousness, the Professor says in three pages what might be said better in three sentences. His ponderous volumes are a trial to the spirit and a weariness to the flesh, and one wishes with all one's heart that the work might be written over again by a Frenchman with his countrymen's knack of clear and concise statement. An abridgment would hardly be possible, because the dilution of phrase is so constant that nothing could be cut out without destroying the meaning. There may be six words where one would answer, but none of the six is that one, and it takes all the six to say anything whatever. The explanations are endless, and the descriptions, which too often take the place of real criticism, intolerably verbose. It is here that one feels the lack of technical knowledge which is the gravest handicap of the literary critic of art. When we would have a clear description of the methods of a painter, of his pictorial aims, and the means he has chosen for their attainment, of his accomplishments and shortcomings, we get only a disquisition on his subject-matter and his sentiment. What we are told of the sentiment is generally true, and what is said of the subject-matter is obvious; but we would give pages of such writing for a few lines of that technical insight which only a very few writers, most of them painters themselves, have ever possessed.

One whole chapter of the book might have been omitted, and no harm done—that on Japanese art. That modern painting has been more or less influenced by the introduction into Europe of Japanese prints is indubitable, but all that is to be said on this subject might be comprised in a page or two. A short and clear account of just what the influence of Japanese art has been and how it has modified European painting, would have been welcome. This we do not get, but in place of it is an elaborate history of Japanese painting, with long lists of names and dates which, like the flowers that bloom in the spring, "have nothing to do with the case." It is a pure *hors d'œuvre*, and the book was long enough, in all conscience, without it.

As to mere statement of fact, it is impossible that so vast a work should be impeccable. It is equally impossible that any one critic or a legion of critics should be in a position to control the truth of each statement. A few mistakes we have noted which we submit for the consideration of the author for a new edition which is pretty sure to be called for. Reynolds was not a baronet, but a knight; there is no evidence that Angelica Kauffmann ever "declined his hand," or had the opportunity to do so; and his discourses were not delivered at the "dinners of the Academy" (i., p. 35). David's picture in the Louvre is not of the "Rape of the Sabines" (i., p. 164), but of "The Sabine Women" interfering in a battle between their husbands and their fathers and brothers. Should not Millet's "Man with the Hatchet" (i., p. 190) be Man with a Hoe? "Great heroes" (i., p. 324) should evidently be "Gros's heroes," but this is a mistake of the translator's. Delacroix's "Tasso" is wrongly described (i., p. 352), though the picture is reproduced on p. 351. "The Death of Marat" was far from the "first" picture of Baudry (i., p. 420). This curious use of the words "first picture" occurs more than once. Baudry's "Punishment of a Vestal" is so far from being "a reminiscence of 'The Death of Peter Martyr'" (i., p. 422) that it bears not the slightest resemblance to that celebrated masterpiece. If Toudouze painted a picture of the "Fall of Sodom" with "Lot's wife, dying and half consumed by fire" (i., p. 430), he was singularly untrue to the Biblical story. Corot's friends did not bring him, "in the hour of death," the medal which was struck for him, nor did he "pass away" with the words quoted (ii., p. 425). They were spoken at a banquet at the Hôtel Drouot in 1874, and Corot did not die until the 23d of February, 1875. In the quotation from Millet (ii., p. 493, seventh line from the bottom) *que* must have been omitted before "*de la nature.*" Millet can hardly have painted a picture of "cows coming down to drink *at the sea*"! (ii., p. 499). Carolus Duran was not born "across the Flemish border," but in France (at Lille), and it is misleading to speak of "Léon Bonnat, the pupil of Madrazos," to say nothing of the final *s* (ii., p. 547). The passage of Ruskin referred to (ii., p. 573) and the cartoon of Raphael both deal with "the charge to Peter" and not with Christ's walking upon the water. It is far from true that Turner never sold any pictures (iii., p. 631). Finally, Mr. Whistler cannot have been born both in Baltimore, as stated in the text, and in Lowell, Mass., as correctly stated in the Index of Artists; and even his taste for "arrangements" never led him to do peacocks with "blue tail-feathers and iridescent golden plumage around the necks" (iii., p. 662).

The translation of the first volume is by Messrs. Ernest Dawson, George Arthur Greene, and Arthur Cecil Hillier, that of the second and third volumes by Mr. Hillier alone. We should judge it to be faithful, but it is seldom either elegant or idiomatic, and is occasionally unintelligible. The illustrations are abundant, generally well chosen, and fairly satisfactory in execution. It is strange, since Watteau is dealt with at all, that only one of his pictures is reproduced, and that one an early and entirely uncharacteristic example. As a final summing up, we may say that the book is the best, so far as we know, that has yet appeared on the subject, but it is by no means a definitive work, or one that need, by its quality, discourage others from attempting the task.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Augustine Birrell, in addition to being an essayist and humorist, is also a member of Parliament and a barrister. His 'Duties and Liabilities of Trustees' (Macmillan) is a little volume of 183 pages, containing six lectures, recently delivered in the Inner Temple at the request of the Council of Legal Education. They are intended chiefly for law students, but still more, perhaps, for trustees who are not lawyers—themselves a large class. The book is primarily for English readers, and this fact makes part of it inapplicable to this country, as important changes in the law of trusts have recently been introduced by Parliament. With this qualification, however, Mr. Birrell's handbook is an excellent exposition of the fundamental principles of the duties and liabilities of trustees as they exist on both sides of the Atlantic. Lawyers are familiar enough with the rules; but they ought to be understood by the laity as well, and that they are not is

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not due to any want of inherent simplicity or intelligibility. Mr. Birrell in fact shows that trustees' duties in England may be all summed up in nine rules, the observance of which by any trustee will absolve him from any necessity of inquiry into what his liabilities may be. These duties are, first, to make himself acquainted with the terms of his trust; second, to bear them in mind; third, never to depart from them; fourth, to take as much care of the trust property as a prudent man would of his own; fifth, to invest in nothing except what the trust-instrument or the *rules of law* permit; sixth, to give those beneficially interested such information as to the trust funds as they may from time to time require, and to render accounts; seventh, not to make a sixpence of profit out of the trust business except in so far as he is expressly authorized to do so; eighth, to coöperate in a reasonable spirit with co-trustees, to consult with them about all matters connected with the trust, and *to retire on being requested to do so by all concerned;* ninth, as to any question of difficulty, to take the opinion of the judge in chambers. This last is under a recent English statute which puts it in the power of a trustee to obtain a summary decision on difficult points. The first eight rules, however, contain the substance of a trustee's ordinary duties, and they are really nothing more than the application of the fundamental requirements of prudence and honesty to the questions which grow out of the relation of trustee and beneficiary.

One of the most important rules is the seventh. In the case of the others, self-interest dictates their observance; but the principle that a position of trust cannot be used for a trustee's own profit is at once a rule on which the whole business of trusts rests, and one which is at war with the trustee's self-interest. It is a striking illustration of the fact that the law of trusts is merely an application of the moral law, that a judgment of a great lawyer, cited by Mr. Birrell, is perhaps as simple and clear a statement of what the honest discharge of duty means as has ever been made. "The rule really is, that no one who has a duty to perform shall place himself in a situation to have his interests conflicting with that duty." A trustee, for instance, as to acts which he might employ others to perform, must employ others, and not first employ and then pay himself, for it is his duty to watch the employees, and decide upon the propriety of their charges; and experience teaches us that no man is fit to be a judge in his own case. Lord Cranworth's rule is the golden rule of honesty, without which trusts could not exist. One of the most certain marks of a high state of civilization is the increasing opportunities it affords to the thrifty and the benevolent to place property on such a footing that the law will stand guard over the administrator of it, and help him by a stern code of retribution to remember to avoid temptation. For the code is, as Mr. Birrell points out, very strict. No one whose property is in trust can complain that the law is lax. Generally, when beneficiaries meet with losses it is due to their own lack of care in supervising or inquiring into the doings of their trustees, or of carelessness on the part of a trustee in leaving everything to a co-trustee.

Mr. Birrell gives an interesting account of recent changes by statute which have been introduced in England, and some of which will undoubtedly sooner or later be copied here. One of them we have already mentioned. Another is the fixing of a statutory period of limitations, so that in cases of honest breaches of trust—*i. e.*, mistakes in investments, etc.—the beneficiary, to recover, must sue within six years, as in the case of any other loss of money. The statute is not allowed to apply, however, if the trustee still have the proceeds of the breach of trust, or has converted them to his own use, for, as the author very justly observes, the fact that the beneficiary has been out of his property for six years is no reason of itself why he should be kept out of it for ever. The proper case for a bar is where the property is gone through an innocent mistake or imprudence, and the question is, on which of two innocent parties shall the loss fall. Here there is no hardship in requiring a suit within a fixed time.

'A Handbook to the Labor Law of the United States,' by F. J. Stimson (Charles Scribner's Sons), is an extremely valuable compilation of law as well as guide to the principles which govern the relation of laborer and employer. It is intended chiefly for laboring men and labor organizations, though a knowledge of what it contains is equally important to employers; while it is lawyers who will really find it indispensable. It explains the elementary principles governing the contract for labor; the effect of the constitutional guarantees relating to it; the police power; the statutory regulation of hours of labor; restrictions in children's and women's labor; fines for imperfect work; company stores; piece-work; strikes; boycotts; trade-unions, and a great variety of other subjects. Mr. Stimson writes law in such a way that it can not only be studied, but read—a rare gift, and one which only sound lawyers, and very few of those, possess. Most of the trouble caused by the labor problem is produced by pure ignorance, and if an additional labor law could be passed compelling every one before he undertakes to discuss labor questions or agitate for any new labor reform to read this handbook, we are satisfied that there would be a saving of a very considerable percentage of the annual pecuniary loss to the country which comes from useless strikes and boycotts. One of the things which labor agitators seem to have the greatest difficulty in getting into their heads is that they live under a government of *law;* that constitutional law means a system of uniform rules, governing all alike, making the right to contract equally free for the laborer and his employer, and prohibiting unlawful interference with freedom of contract as much in one case as in the other. Consequently, when they get statutes passed to protect Labor against Capital, it generally turns out in the end, to their utter amazement, that they have also protected Capital against Labor. The Anti-Trust act of 1890 was, as Mr. Stimson points out, probably passed only to prevent combinations among employers; but it necessarily applies, on the principles just stated, to any combination or conspiracy in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, no matter whether among employers or laborers; if it did not, it would not be constitutional, for it would be a gross invasion of the most elementary rules of common right guaranteed by the Constitution. Consequently, the courts have been forced to hold that the prohibition would include combinations to tie up railroads by means of a strike, especially when taken in connection with the words of the Interstate Commerce act—another statute designed to operate against Capital, but which, for the same reason, has turned out to be a help to railroad companies against strikers (p. 337).

A 'Handbook on the Law of Bailments and Carriers,' by William B. Hale (West Publishing Co.), is the latest addition to the rapidly multiplying Hornbook Series. This series, and the 'Cyclopædia of English and American Law,' seem to show that we are now on the verge of the Trust period of legal writing; already, in the case of very important publications, the motive power, instead of being furnished by the learning of men like Coke, Kent, Story, or Cooley, is supplied by the capital of a "hustling" publisher, who gathers together, under the comfortable shelter of his copyright, the younger limbs of the law, and, through their ready pens, supplies a regular flow of "up-to-date" jurisprudence. We can see nothing to prevent a glorious "combine" of such capitalists, which should have the aim of doing perennially for the modern world in this novel way what Justinian, in his ignorance, attempted to do for the Roman world once for all. There is no doubt that the system tends to keep down competition and expenses. Mr. Hale's book is a creditable performance, accurate where we have had an opportunity of verifying his law, and well filled with cases. The rules of law are fairly well stated; the definition of bailment itself does not seem to us especially successful. The conception of contract is not mentioned, and redelivery or delivery over is put down as essential. Memoirs or papers are intrusted by A B to C D, in contemplation of death, on the understanding that in a certain event they are to be destroyed. Is not this a bailment?

Mr. W. B. Hale's 'Handbook on the Law of Damages' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) aims at stating, explaining, and illustrating "with elementary clearness and accuracy all the rules and principles governing the award of damages in civil cases," for the use of students as well as practitioners. Mr. Hale thinks that "much confusion" has been caused

"by the loose and unscientific use of terms both by law writers and in judicial opinions. This is notably true with regard to nominal damages. That subject has been made almost unintelligible by the lack of consistency and precision in the use of the terms 'wrong' and 'damage.' The notions embraced in these words have been very carefully analyzed in the first chapter. The fundamental nature of legal rights and wrongs has been looked at from a new point of view; and while no new theories are advanced, it is hoped that the subject has been made clearer. The question of damages in actions for injuries to land by the erection of permanent structures, upon which the courts are almost hopelessly confused, has also been looked at from the point of view established in the first chapter, and it is hoped that the results there reached will be helpful."

We have examined the book carefully to see what Mr. Hale's new point of view is, and, if we understand him, it consists of a new analysis of legal wrongs, which he sums up as follows: "A legal wrong is committed whenever (*a*) conduct which is either (1) forbidden, (2) malicious, (3) negligent, or (4) done at peril, (*b*) result in damage which may be either (1) actual or (2) presumed." Under this classification, what are ordinarily called nominal damages become damages conclusively presumed. But whether we say that if A trespass on B's lands, B has a right to recover nominal damages in any case, or that damage is conclusively presumed, the meaning is precisely the same, while there is a serious objection to the theory of a conclusive presump-

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tion in the fact that there is no authority for it. The whole classification is misleading, as can be seen by looking at what the author says about damage caused by a permanent structure (*e. g.*, public works, such as railroads): "Reverting to first principles for a moment, the whole matter becomes clear. If the structure is expressly authorized, there is no liability for the damage necessarily resulting." But this is not the law. A railroad round-house, a permanent structure expressly authorized by law, is built near a church, and becomes by means of the noise and smoke produced a nuisance to the congregation. The church may recover damages. This was decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in the well-known Fifth Baptist Church case, cited by Mr. Hale in another part of his book, and the principle adopted underlies the elevated-railroad cases in this State as does also the maxim, *Sic utere tuo ut alienum non lædas.*

Mr. Hale's view of the subject is also defective from his failure to insist more emphatically upon the distinction which every one who has ever tried a jury case knows to be at the threshold of the subject—that between tort and contract. This is not the question of the form of the action (all writers are agreed that this has become a matter of little or no consequence), but of the *nature of the injury.* There are some actions as to which it is hard to say whether the injury complained of is a tort or breach of contract, or both at once; so there are organisms in the physical world which it is difficult to classify as either animal or vegetable. We do not, however, therefore say that the distinction between animal and vegetable is unimportant; neither can we ever discuss the right to redress an injury from assault and battery in the same terms as we discuss the right to damages for non-payment of a promissory note. The legal conceptions are different because the injuries produced by a blow on the head are different in kind from those produced by a violation of a promise to pay money. We hardly think that Mr. Hale's analysis of the subject of damages can be considered safe; the book, however, is very full of authorities, and the practitioner will find it useful.

Mr. John R. Rood's 'Treatise on Garnishment' (West Publishing Company) is a book of more than six hundred pages, and cites nearly four thousand cases. The author's preface declares that "the day of the commentator is past"; when a point of law arises nowadays "we want the authorities upon it. We want them all. We want them quick. . . . We have no time to read the fine-spun theories of the text-writer who takes us on an observation-excursion all over the subject in a balloon." Holding these views, the author has in general wisely refrained from expressing opinions of his own; his effort has been simply to state the cases intelligibly, and classify them conveniently, and in this he seems to be successful. Comparing it with the latest edition of Waples on 'Attachment and Garnishment,' it seems to have many cases not referred to by the latter writer.

Mr. Walton Denton Smith's 'Manual of Elementary Law' (West Publishing Co.) is intended as "an introduction to the study of the law." As the author is an instructor in the Law Department of the University of Michigan, it is, we suppose, his design that students should use it under his direction. This may account for the fact that it can hardly be understood without the aid of much additional exposition; for the legal public at large it is deficient in cases and too much like a hasty draft of a scheme of study. Under these circumstances the vice which taints most of this whole Hornbook Series—that of ill-considered statement of rules of law—is not likely to be conspicuous for its absence. *Stare decisis*, for instance, is said to require that a "rule of law," once "recognized by the courts and applied to a case," "forms a precedent" and should be followed in "all similar cases," unless "*flatly absurd or unjust*," or repealed by legislation. The rule may, for all we know, have been stated in this form before, but it is certainly very misleading. A precedent is a *case*, and it is not at all necessary that the decision of a case should contain any explicit rule of law. Our law books are filled with precedents which consist of nothing more than a statement of the facts of the controversy followed by the judgment of the court, which is an order or command that certain specific acts be done or refrained from by somebody. The rule of *stare decisis* requires that if *those precise facts* (not similar cases) arise again, the same judgment should follow, because it is important that the law should be as stable as possible, and that those affected by it should be able to know their rights in advance. The rule of law involved in the decision is a matter of inference, and it may be explicitly stated by the judge, but even he may state it wrongly, and this continually happens, as we see every day in cases reversed on appeal for legal error committed by the judge in the course of a trial. A rule, to be binding, must be recognized by the *final court of appeal*, as inferrible from a case or cases; but even here no rule may be laid down, and the judgment may take the form of a particular command only. It is none the less a precedent. No doubt if the rule turns out to be flatly absurd or unjust, judges may modify it, and this they constantly do, sometimes going so far as to overrule it, but this is generally on the ground that some fact was overlooked in making the inference, or that some fact exists in the case before them which makes this rule inapplicable—in other words, that the cases are not "on all fours." *Stare decisis* is a rule of common sense. The extraordinary importance attached to it in our system is probably due to the pains we take to discriminate fact and law, and this again to trial by jury; but without the rule that decisions must be followed, no law could exist at all.

Volume viii. of the publications of the Selden Society (London: Bernard Quaritch), edited by Prof. F. W. Maitland, contains select passages from the works of Bracton and his master Azo. Volume ix. contains select cases from the Coroners' Rolls A. D. 1265-1413, with a brief account of the history of the office of Coroner, edited by Prof. Chas. Gross of Harvard. The latter are extraordinarily modern and monotonous. Prof. Gross makes it clear that very little is known about the origin of the Coroner's office; it was probably Norman, and yet within our knowledge it has always been elective. The Coroner's function was undoubtedly to look after the Crown's business, and this covered not merely inquiry into sudden and violent deaths, but a wide range of criminal matters and even of civil pleas. The case of John of Barford (p. 21) seems to cover assault with intent to kill, highway robbery, and mayhem. It is all brought before the Coroner in the County Court of Bedford, Nov. 2, 1271. The defendant Simon is "exacted" three times without his appearing. On the fourth time (March 21, 1272) he finds bail. The whole proceeding is for the purpose of making sure that a trial shall be had, and this, on the surface of the matter, would seem to be the connecting link between the functions of the Coroner acting in such a case and his functions in the case of an ordinary inquest, in which he inquires into a death solely because there is some reason to suspect violence, and because, if so, a trial should follow.

Mr. Maitland's parallel passages from the works of Bracton and Azo, the great Bolognese civilian, are an important contribution to the study of the common law. The position of Bracton as a father of English law has long been unquestioned, but the nature and extent of his work in sowing the seed of Roman law in English jurisprudence has been a matter of much question. Reeves declared that all the Roman law which Bracton transferred would not fill three whole pages of his book. A later generation of critics found in Bracton's work proof that much of our common law is Roman in origin; Sir Henry Maine went a step further and said, in his 'Ancient Law,' that Bracton had "put off" on his countrymen as pure English law a compendium of which the entire form and a third of the contents were directly borrowed from the Corpus Juris. Mr. Maitland shows that he did not take the trouble to borrow directly from the Corpus Juris when he could borrow directly from Azo, but that Maine's indictment is greatly exaggerated. All the passages taken from the Corpus Juris might be printed on ten of the 444 folios; what he took from Azo may amount to a fifteenth of the whole. Further, he was no instructed Romanist at all, and his abstract was "not a good intelligent abstract of Azo's text." The sum and substance of the whole matter is that the part of Bracton which is really valuable is the English part, and that he did extremely little to Romanize the English law. As to "putting off," he does not seem open to the charge of representing the Romanesque part of his book to be his own, for he refers the readers to his sources; while, if he used materials which did not belong to him, it must be remembered that printing had not been invented, books had no commercial value, and every lawyer of Henry III.'s time copied from his predecessors, as he expected in his turn to be himself copied. The notes scattered through the volume are full of learning. We may notice, as bearing on a point much discussed in the courts of late years, the note at p. 217 on the father's or master's right to sue for injury to members of what Romans called the *familia.* Bracton tells us that the formula in common use in his day was "so that I would not have suffered that damage for so many shillings or that *shame* for so many." This seems to be an indication that there is nothing in the principles of the English law to exclude damage for mental suffering, in a proper case.

Mr. Leonard A. Jones's 'Treatise on the Law of Real Property' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the seventh legal work published by that author, all dealing with property law—a subject which, within certain limits, he has made his own. His aim is practical, and accordingly, in the present volumes, he confines himself to the law as applied between vendor and purchaser, and more particularly to estates in fee and their transfer by deed. Mr. Jones is not only learned and accurate, but unusually modest as to his own performances. His Table of Cases shows that he has cited more than 15,000 decisions, and as the same case is constantly cited to several points, a

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rough estimate would give about 25,000 citations in all—a collection involving a stupendous amount of labor. His own description of his book, however, is that it is only a statement of "general principles, with a meagre citation of authorities." In such a work, which does not profess to be historical or philosophical, arrangement is everything, and Mr. Jones's arrangement is such that what is looked for can be easily found. Mr. Jones's reputation as a writer of practical law-books of this species is established, and is not likely to be impaired by these volumes. Wherever we have examined them we have found the statements of law exactly such as a practising lawyer wants.

Mr. Robert Ludlow Fowler's 'Charitable Uses, Trusts and Donations in New York' (Diossy Law-Book Company) is a carefully reasoned and interesting essay on the subject to which the title refers. The author's thesis is that, by recent legislation, in 1893 (ch. 701 L. 1893), charitable uses have been restored to a situation which they have not enjoyed in this State since the Revised Statutes went into effect. This statute, as has been declared by the Court of Appeals in the recent case of Dammert vs. Osborn (140 N. Y. 30), indicates the intention on the part of the Legislature to enforce and uphold charitable bequests not heretofore recognized as valid—*i. e.*, trusts for the benefit of indefinite and uncertain persons. The curious feature of the change is, that it marks a return to a principle which was probably enforced by the English chancellors before this country was discovered. The long contention in the courts of this State over charitable uses is an illustration, not only of the confusion sure to be introduced into the law of property by any legislature which once contracts the habit of meddling with it, but also of the singular effect which may be produced on the course of decision by historical research. It was at one time supposed that the whole jurisdiction of the English chancellor over charitable trusts came from the statute of charitable uses, passed in Elizabeth's time. In 1788 the New York Legislature abrogated this statute altogether, and this, it was generally inferred, abrogated the entire English law of charities. But the publication of ancient documents in chancery soon showed that the Chancellor's jurisdiction was a very ancient one, and independent of the statute of Elizabeth. The result is, that "the later opinion of the courts, discussed at length in these pages, is to the effect that, as it was commonly thought both in England and in this country until the exhumation of ancient documents in chancery, that the Chancellor's jurisdiction did depend upon the statute of Charitable Uses, the repeal of that statute in 1878 is conclusive evidence of an intention by the Legislature to abrogate the entire English law of charities," and consequently it was abrogated. *Communis error facit jus.* The subject forms an interesting chapter in the history of the law of property, and is illuminated by judgments delivered by some of the best judges New York has produced—Denio, Duer, Selden, and Wright—to say nothing of the arguments of counsel no less eminent. Mr. Fowler's sketch is a valuable and interesting contribution to the learning of the subject. The book contains appendices giving forms and lists of statutes.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

If the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' had foreseen the long procession of his imitators, particularly if he had been doomed to read them all, surely he would never have written that classic tale, and we should have had to do without the gryphon and mock-turtle, the walrus and the carpenter, and all those prized possessions. Since oddity is their principal charm, such creations cannot be indefinitely multiplied without becoming stale, flat, and, let us hope, in a pecuniary sense unprofitable. Still, if there be any children who prefer an imitation to reading the original over again, let them get 'The Wallypug of Why,' by G. E. Farrow (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is a close and clever imitation, and more refined than many, though its "Alice" is named "Girlie."

In a book for young children by Sheila E. Braine (Scribners) some old friends from 'Mother Goose,' 'Alice in Wonderland,' and "Midsummer Night's Dream" start off together 'To Tell the King the Sky is Falling.' Besides Henny Penny and the others who went the same road so long ago and left their message untold, a certain small pair of twins, named Max and Molly, join the company, and, being guided by Titania's fairies, they have such delightful adventures by the way that the momentous errand is all but forgotten a second time.

The rare distinction of being written by a real queen, "Carmen Sylva," will be to children, who always worship royalty, an added recommendation of the Rumanian 'Legends from River and Mountain' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), though they need none beyond their own freshness and grace. With a poet's art, she pictures the wild mountains and dashing rivers of her home while relating the legends that give them human interest. The translator, Alma Strettell, adds about an equal number of other stories gathered from various German collections. They are modified folk-tales, full of the mystery and magic so dear to childhood's heart.

An unpretentious but pleasing little book, by Eliza Orne White, is called 'A Little Girl of Long Ago' (Houghton Mifflin & Co.). It is not strictly a story, as it has no beginning, middle or end, but is simply a picture of the home life of a well-born Boston child early in this century. The children of her old-fashioned home seem to be contented and merry without making life a burden to the older people; and they enjoy their little jokes and frolics in happy ignorance of their hard fate in being born a couple of generations before the "children's age."

The children about whom Mrs. C. V. Jamison writes are always angelic, so no one need wonder at her last title, 'Seraph, the Little Violiniste' (Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.). When arrayed in white chiffon, or any other of the toilettes so fondly described, no doubt the young lady needed only wings to live up to her name. But as we cannot see her beauty or listen to the ravishing music of her violin, and as these are her only claims to special consideration, it would be unreasonable to expect us to join the circle of her abject admirers.

The 'Short Stories for Short People,' by Alicia Aspinwall (E. P. Dutton & Co.), while somewhat unequal in interest, are on the whole very bright and original. The quick-running squash in particular is "a character" likely to be remembered. The stories justify their title of short, having no padding of description or sentiment, and they know how to stop the minute they are done, which is just what the short people will like.

The ways of all wild living creatures have a fascinating interest for most children, but unfortunately their parents and friends are usually too ignorant to answer their reasonable questions. To such inquiring minds 'Tommy-Anne and the Three Hearts,' by Mabel Osgood Wright (Macmillan), should be a boon. They will hear the unappreciated garden snake's plea for toleration, and the mole's account of his own good deeds. They will have a peep into Bob-o-link's wardrobe, and a glimpse of Madame Duck's nursery, and will learn many surprising things about our small familiar beasts and the common plants which we all think we know. A pleasant thread of story binds together the bits of information, making them easier to hold, and the child who reads will be charmed while he is instructed and led on to make new discoveries for himself.

The reader of 'Bushy,' by Cynthia M. Westover (The Morse Co.), certainly gets his money's worth of excitement. The author counts that day lost whose low descending sun sees not some hair-breadth escape for the young heroine. A mere catalogue of this little girl's adventures in her strange home among the miners of a Rocky Mountain camp would be enough to make one's hair stand on end. But, after following her through a dozen or so, seeing her kill her buffalo, shoot her horse-thieves and Indians, swim the freshets, strangle the rattlesnakes, etc., one grows calm, realizing that nothing will happen that she cannot cope with. The story purports to be "founded on fact," and the title-page bears the needed reminder that truth is stranger than fiction.

Capt. Mayne Reid was an Irishman, who lived 1818–73, won his military title in the Mexican war, wrote more than fifty trashy novels which perished of inanition, and meanwhile won a warm place in every healthy boy's heart by such imperishable books as those now republished in the Nimrod edition of Messrs. Putnam. No better books of the sort have ever been written, if to fascinate the youthful mind be any test of goodness; we recall the revelation they made to us about forty years ago, and suppose boys of one generation are much like those of another. In the present volume, 'The Young Voyageurs,' the original "boy-hunters" of Reid's invention—Basil, a sort of juvenile Daniel Boone, Lucien, a young naturalist modelled after Audubon, and the jolly François—who were sent trooping after a white buffalo robe for Prince Charles Lucien Bonaparte, are turned into Canadian voyageurs, and set adrift on their adventures in search of fur-bearing animals in British America. Reid's plan of entertaining his young readers while he lectures them on natural history is wholly admirable; the verisimilitude is perfect, and the science is quite as much as most boys can assimilate. He has in a high degree the art of satisfying their normal craving for excitement without stimulating it unduly. In a solitary instance he is our authority for a technical name—that of *Ursus richardsoni*, the Barren Ground bear, now recognized as a distinct species. But that is a small affair, in comparison with reading about the way Basil killed the moose, and the bison bull did not kill Basil, and how all three of the boys fought the wolves; it makes us feel young again—almost.

Soldiers in King Philip's War. By George Madison Bodge, A.B., chaplain of the Mass. Society of Colonial Wars. Leominster, Mass.: The Author. 1896.

John Eliot's First Indian Teacher and Inter-

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preter, Cockenoe-de-Long Island; and the Story of his Career from the Early Records. By William Wallace Tooker. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1896.

Mr. Bodge's handsome volume is a monument of antiquarian industry and research, in the interest rather of genealogy than of history, as being the chief concern of the legion of recent patriotic societies like that of which our author is chaplain. Hence his plan has been to follow the fortunes not of campaigns but of military companies, preceded, to be sure, by a summary account of the general course of events. The repetitions thus made inevitable are much less annoying than they would have been in a connected narrative, and indeed serve to impress the recurring incidents upon the reader's memory. The whole mass of facts, names, and dates has, since the first edition in 1892, been thoroughly gone over in comparison with the original documents, and the accuracy of these annals thereby insured in an extraordinary degree. Moreover, a large amount of new matter has been incorporated and added, the most significant being an introductory chapter relating the Indian wars of New England from the beginning, and the lists of Narraganset Grantees who profited by the promised reward of lands held out by the General Court to those who served against Philip. The final index of names fills thirteen pages in four columns of fine print, and limited must be the New England (or at least Massachusetts) connection of six or eight generations which does not find here one or more ancestors, direct or collateral.

Mr. Bodge seldom pushes apology of the Puritan treatment of Indians too far, and frequently points out what Massachusetts suffered by not putting confidence in the friendly converted Indians as scouts and as instructors in Indian warfare. Popular clamor and mob violence more than once paralyzed the authorities, and stifled their better instincts for the protection of Eliot's wards, the distrust of whom, as reclaimed pagans, bore a singular resemblance to that still so widely entertained at the South towards the educated freedmen. A still darker parallel subsists in the atrocious shooting down of Indians *qua* Indians, or their execution as captives—in one case recorded here a squaw having been torn to pieces by dogs set upon her. Southerners have often retorted Northern charges of pro-slavery inhumanity by reference to the Puritans' semi-superstitious dealings with the Indians. The retort has little weight or meaning if the tender mercies of the slaveholder are, at the same time, either denied historic existence or sanctioned from Scripture texts. The Puritans, too, could handle these texts for their own justification. Capt. Underhill, one of the leading participants in the capture of the Pequod fort on May 26, 1637, as well as its historian, says, after telling of setting fire to the wigwams, "Many courageous fellows fought most desperately through the palisadoes, while scorched and burnt by the flames; mercy did they deserve for their valor, could we have had opportunity to bestow it." He added: "It may be demanded, Should not Christians have more mercy and compassion? But I would refer you to David's war. Sometimes the Scripture declareth women and children must perish with their parents. We had sufficient light from the word of God for our proceedings." On the other hand, when, in April, 1677, Massachusetts sent commissioners to the Mohawks to enlist them against the Indians harassing her northern and eastern borders, the measure, says Mr. Bodge, "was questioned by many as to its lawfulness, in employing heathen to fight the battles of the Lord; but the General Court fell back upon the scriptural precedent of Abraham employing the Amorites."

Two chapters are devoted to the hostile Indians and to the much suffering Christian Indians respectively. In the former we see Weetamoo, Wamsutta's widow, drowned in escaping from her white pursuers on a raft, and her head, severed from her recovered body, placed upon a pole and paraded in the streets of Taunton; while the dead body of Philip was "chopped in quarters and beheaded, and left unburied; his head and one hand were given to Alderman [his Indian slayer] as a reward, and in Mr. Church's account it is said that he got 'many a penny' by showing the hand." In the other chapter we see "Maj. Gen. Gookin and even the saintly Eliot . . . loaded with reproaches and threats, and insulted in the streets, because of their advocacy of the rights of the Christian Indians"; and these Indians, cooped up (as on a Confederate Belle Isle) on Deer Island in Boston harbor, the objects of a plot of indiscriminate slaughter, which happily miscarried.

Eliot and the "praying Indians" fall within the scope of the second work named above, a thin volume addressed to the Suffolk County (N. Y.) Historical Society by one of its members. Mr. Tooker's investigations make it entirely probable that he has identified Eliot's anonymous first teacher and interpreter, without, however, quite warranting the monument to be thus inscribed which he would have erected on Fort Hill at Montauk Point, Long Island. With much ingenuity, some conjecture, and a large amount of documentary evidence, he traces the career of Cockenoe (whose name was variously disguised by illiterate spelling) from the time he is supposed to have left Eliot's service to the end of his days, or rather to his disappearance from the records, towards the close of the seventeenth century. Cockenoe's eminent usefulness in witnessing the purchase of lands from the Indians, and in fixing and recovering boundaries, entitled him to this intelligent biography and to the remembrance which it will insure. It was something to connect him with the island off Westport, Conn., which has for more than two hundred years borne the interpreter's name. This too is a beautifully made book.

Wages and Capital: An Examination of the Wages Fund Doctrine. By F. W. Taussig, Professor of Political Economy in Harvard University. Appletons. 1896. Pp. 325.

In reading much of the modern literature of economics, one is apt to sigh for the robust militant spirit of the old-fashioned writers who had theses to support. Prof. Taussig is so impartial, so anxious to do justice to every view which he discusses, that it is extremely difficult, in spite of the lucidity of his exposition and the directness of his reasoning, to make out what is the net result of his exhaustive discussion of the wages-fund theory and its history. It may well be that this is inseparable from the nature of the subject, and that such is the case may not unreasonably be inferred from the fact that the wages-fund controversy, which has been in a more or less acute stage for the whole of the past quarter-century, is probably more full of obscurities and misunderstandings than any other economic dispute. For this very reason, however, it seems that the most useful contribution that could be made to its discussion would be one that gave little prominence to analysis of the exact merits of the various views which have been advanced, but rather insisted on bringing into bold relief the elements which the author deemed most helpful to an understanding of the question at issue. Indeed, Prof. Taussig was probably himself impelled, partly at least, by this consideration to the adoption of the unusual plan of devoting the first of the two parts into which his book is divided to the exposition of his own views, and the second part to the history of the theory; though the reason that he assigns for it in his preface is that his criticism of the views of others, proceeding as it must from the point of view he himself adopts, can be much better understood after that point of view has been made clear. It is, perhaps, in consequence of this ulterior purpose—the utilization of the exposition in the first part for the historical criticism of the second part—that Prof. Taussig's statement of his own position is, as we have intimated, less concise and straightforward than might be desired.

Whether wages are paid out of the product of past or of present labor, whether there is such a thing as a wages-fund in any sense or not, and whether, if there be such a fund, it is rigidly fixed by the general conditions prevailing in the community or is capable of alteration by combinations of laborers—these are the questions that pervade all discussions of the relation of capital to wages, and one or other of them is ever near throughout the pages of the present work. The first of these three questions is the one which is not only most fully answered, but most instructively illumined, in Prof. Taussig's discussion. He attaches great importance to the notion of the constant progression of all forms of capital—his definition of capital is "inchoate wealth; all the possessions that do not yet serve human wants"—through successive stages of approach, to the form of commodities ready for the enjoyment of consumers. The lapse of time involved in the use of capital is thus not only asserted, but made vivid by detail; and the mechanism by which the labor of to-day receives its reward from the product of past labor is exposed. "Present labor produces chiefly unfinished things; but the reward of present labor is finished things. Real wages are, virtually to their full extent, the product of past labor" (p. 17).

As regards the evidence of a "fund" for the payment of wages, while, in accordance with the analysis just indicated, Prof. Taussig naturally adopts the view that a steady "flow" of capital more accurately expresses the actual state of things, he seems to admit that for many, if not most, purposes of theory, the notion of a fund may legitimately be substituted for that of a flow. We cannot ourselves regard the distinction as of great importance for the discussion of the live questions which have given the wages-fund theory its chief interest. That interest has centred about the question of the limits within which combinations of laborers can affect the rate of wages—the determinateness or indeterminateness of the amount of capital which will go to the payment of wages, the conditions of industry being given. It does not seem that the answer to this question, in the sense in which it is of deep importance, is helped or hindered by observing that, strictly speaking, wages are paid not out of a fund which is continually being replenished, but out of a flow which is continually being kept up. We say "the sense

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in which it is of deep importance," for we cannot help thinking that Prof. Taussig has given entirely too great prominence to the bearing of the wages-fund theory on the question of "market" or temporary wages as compared with its bearing on normal wages. The conclusion at which Prof. Taussig arrives on the subject of the elasticity of the wages fund is that the fund is roughly predetermined, but that it is elastic within limits so wide as to make the predetermination of no great importance in practical economic discussion.

The examination of the history of the wages-fund theory is full of interest and instructiveness. We find the imperfections of author after author pointed out, and see again and again how the unguarded expressions of great writers have been made the basis either of wrong conclusions on the one hand, or of profitless wrangling on the other, by their successors. One of the best traits in Prof. Taussig's criticism is that it is never supercilious, flippant, or acrimonious—qualities that are, unfortunately, displayed in great abundance by some of the younger economists of Great Britain. His criticisms are so delicately balanced that it is impossible to indicate without inaccuracy, in a brief review, his position in relation to the various writers whom he discusses. This part of the work, unlike the expository part, is "addressed more particularly to special students of economic theory," and even they will have to keep their wits about them if they would retain their grasp on all the fine distinctions that are made. It is sometimes rather dizzy work, and the not too clever reader will feel a little consolation in noting a curious blunder of the author's, which may fairly be ascribed to the strain of the hair-splitting work he is engaged in. The following passage (p. 305) flies in the face of the logical rule, which "every schoolboy" knows, that *All A is B* and *All non-B is non-A* are equivalent statements:

"Not only did he [Jevons] lay it down that all capital is subsistence (which is true if properly explained), but he came perilously near to saying that all which is not subsistence is not capital (which requires much more explanation to be intelligible and true)."

To sum up, Prof. Taussig's discussion is refined, thorough, accurate, and impartial; but, paradoxical as it may seem, we are convinced that it would have been more useful if it had been less refined, less thorough, less accurate, and less impartial.

A Little Tour in Ireland. By an Oxonian (S. Reynolds Hole, Dean of Rochester). With Illustrations by John Leech. London and New York: Edward Arnold.

Dean Hole very modestly ascribes the demand for a third edition of his youthful work to the fact that it contains some "splendid illustrations" by John Leech, to whose memory he therefore dedicates it. Leech's admirers regard everything of his with an affectionate eye, yet there are few who would not candidly confess that (the frontispiece excepted) his illustrations and initial letters for this book are far below his ordinary achievements in *Punch*. The author's preface so disarms criticism of his share in the partnership that one is glad to be able to say that his text is quite as good as the pictures. To speak frankly, both belong to a bygone day. They fail to give a distinct impression, even where they succeed in giving any at all. The illustrations, of course, are only caricature, however close to nature; and the substance of the book is something similar, for Nature is lost in an attempt to evoke her by continued apostrophe. The modern French "word-painter" is a tedious fellow; but, even at his worst, he is attempting seriously to describe what he sees, and impart some sensation of the contour and color of scenery as it appears to his eyes, whereas exclamations over "glorious panoramas," reinforced by the quotation of a minor poet's ecstasies, bear the same relation to description that clamor does to argument.

The book has, accordingly, little real value, yet it contains some amusing anecdotes, and occasional bits of half-serious observation which show that the author could have done better if he had followed a different model—for example, this paragraph on a little Catholic church at Oughterarde:

"We found little to admire as to architecture without or ornament within; but a priest, who went with us from the car, said it was 'beautiful,' and looked as if to him it was so indeed, as he knelt with others reverently praying there. I thought of our grand old churches at home, locked and barred, most of them, except for a few hours on Sunday (as though the soul should be treated, like a boa-constrictor, with six days' sleep, and then a rabbit); and I envied that poor pilgrim through a prayerless world his privilege and opportunity."

A-birding on a Bronco. By Florence A. Merriam. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 12mo, pp. x, 227.

We notice this booklet mainly to call attention to some of the pictures it contains. About a year ago we had occasion to speak of some artistic work done by Mr. Louis Agassiz Fuertes, a student in Cornell University, whose paintings of birds were much admired when exhibited before the Ornithologists' Union at its last meeting in Washington. He is self-taught, and his technique is still crude; he needs disciplining to keep him from straining for effect; but his power is unmistakable, and we miss our guess if he does not become a great artist in birds in due course, if he perseveres. Thus far his genius overreaches his talent; but his pictures are better than Audubon's were to begin with, and we suspect that the mantle has fallen upon Mr. Fuertes. In the present case, his first appearance in print, the pictures are very small and very slight sketches, mostly an inch or two square, and printer's ink does not give him full scope for his brush; but strength is there. Every bird speaks for itself on sight, needing no label. Ability to draw a live bird instead of a stuffed one, from the very first, is an accomplishment rare enough to deserve more than passing comment.

The rest of the illustrations in this book show the fatal facility of "process" in reproducing anything that one may have kodaked in peering about after birds; and the text hardly calls for remark. The young lady has been properly coached in the technicalities by an elder relative; the Latin names are correct; the same story has been told over and over again by Mrs. Miller and too many others; and since Miss Merriam goes to Shakspere for the affected title of her lucubrations, we may remind her that one of that poet's plays is entitled "Much Ado about Nothing."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Bird-Land Echoes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Amory, Esmerie. The Epistolary Flirt. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.
Aylesworth, Barton O. Song and Fable. Des Moines, Iowa: The Kenyon Press.
Bain, John, jr. Tobacco in Song and Story. New York: Arthur Gray & Co.
Barrie, J. M. A Window in Thrums. The Little Minister. Vol. I. Scribners.
Bates, Herbert. Songs of Exile. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Bellamy, William. A Second Century of Charades. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. Baumbach's Der Schwiegersohn. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Besant, Sir W. The City of Refuge. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Bigelow, P. History of the German Struggle for Liberty. 2 vols. Harpers. $5.
Blanchard, Amy E. Life's Little Actions. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 35c.
Blanchard, Amy E. Taking a Stand. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.
Brown, Miss Anna R. Culture and Reform. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Brown, Vincent. My Brother: A Novel. London: John Lane; Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Bryce, James. The American Commonwealth. Abridged Edition for the Use of Colleges and High Schools. Macmillan. $1.75.
Burgin, G. B. Gascoigne's "Ghost." Harpers. $1.
Carlyle, Thomas. On Heroes and Hero-Worship. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Caro, E. Idylle Nuptiale. Paris: Lévy.
Cartwright, Julia. Jean François Millet: His Life and Letters. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Dickens, Mary A. Some Women's Ways. R. F. Fenno. $1.25.
Erskine, Charles. Twenty Years before the Mast. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.
Evil and Evolution. Macmillan. $1.50.
Fields, Annie. Authors and Friends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Fisher, Prof G. P. A Brief History of the Nations and of their Progress in Civilization. American Book Co. $1.50.
France, Anatole. Tales from a Mother-of-Pearl Casket. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
Furtwängler, A. Intermezzi: Kunstgeschichtliche Studien. Leipzig: Giesecke & Devrient; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Gotthell. Rev. Gustav. Sun and Shield: A Book of Devout Thoughts for Every-Day Use. Brentano's. $1.50.
Gould, Dr. G. M. Borderland Studies. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
Hunter, Sir W. W. The Old Missionary. London and New York: Henry Frowde.
King, Capt. Charles. A Garrison Tangle. F. T. Neely.
King, Capt. Charles. A Tame Surrender. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c
Kipling, Rudyard. Soldier Stories. Macmillan. $1.50.
Knox, T. W. The Land of the Kangaroo. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50
Locke, Rev. Clinton. The Age of the Great Western Schism. [Epochs of Church History.] Christian Literature Co. $2.
Loti, Pierre. An Iceland Fisherman. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Mabie, H. W. Books and Culture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Maddison, Isabel. Handbook of Courses Open to Women in British, Continental, and Canadian Universities. Macmillan. 50c.
Mason, Caroline A. The Quiet King: A Story of Christ. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
May, Phil. Gutter Snipes. Macmillan. $1.50.
McLellan, Isaac. Haunts of Wild Game; or, Poems of Woods, Wilds, and Waters. New York: C. B. Bradford. $1.50.
McMullen, Rachel B. Heart Songs. Worcester: The Author.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Catalina: Art Student. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Nickerson, C. S. Noble Living. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Norris, W. E. Clarissa Furiosa. Harpers. $1.50.
Oxley, J. M. The Romance of Commerce. T. Y. Crowell & Co $1.25.
Page, T. E. Q. Horati Flacci Opera. Abridged for Use in Schools. Macmillan. $1.90.
Paterson, Arthur. For Freedom's Sake. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Pool, Miss Maria L. In Buncombe County. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Pool, Miss Maria L. In the First Person. Harpers. $1.25.
Rochefort, H. The Adventures of My Life. 2 vols. Edward Arnold. $7.50.
Russell, W. C. "What Cheer?" R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Sand, George. Fadette. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Saunders, Miss Marshall. For the Other Boy's Sake. Philadelphia: C. H. Banes. $1.
Sawyer, W. L. An Outland Journey. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Schönbach, Anton E. Über Lesen und Bildung. Fünfte Auflage. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky.
Smith, Prof. C. A. An Old English Grammar and Exercise Book. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Starnes, Val. W. Short-Suit Whist. Brentano's. $1.25.
Steuding, Prof. H. Denkmäler Antiker Kunst für das Gymnasium Ausgewählt. Leipzig: E. A. Seeman.
Stevenson, E. I. A Matter of Temperament. American Publishers Corporation. $1.
Stowe, Mrs. H. B. Dred, and Other Anti-Slavery Tales. 2 vols. Stories Sketches, and Studies. [Riverside Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Thurber, Samuel. Shakspere's As You Like It. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 20c.
Toplis, Grace. Leaves from the Note-Books of Francis M. Buss. Macmillan. $1.25.
Twells, Julia H. A Triumph of Destiny. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Underhill, Mrs. Zoe D. The Dwarfs' Tailor, and Other Fairy Tales. Harpers. $1.75.
Vogt, Prof. F., and Koch, Prof. M. Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur von den ältesten Zeiten bis zur Gegenwart. 1 Heft. Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Watson, Rev. John. The Cure of Souls. Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching. 1896. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Benedix's Plautus und Terenz and Die Sonntagsjäger. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. Friendly Letters to Girl Friends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Williams, R. P. Laboratory Manual of Inorganic Chemistry. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35c.
Wilson, Annie E. Compendium of United States History and Literature. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.
Wingate, C. E. L. Shakespeare's Heroes on the Stage. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Woolcombe, W. G. Light and Sound. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

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